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COMMUNISM AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

IT is highly probable that future historians of education will refer to the year 1949 as "the year of the Red Scare in American education." Some persons see in the present situation something more sinister than a "red scare" which will pass and leave people in their senses again. To them the current attacks on free speech and on academic freedom and the passage of repressive legislation mean a perilous drift toward fascism. But the writer is optimistic.

How future historians will evaluate the activities of American educators during this year is, of course, a matter of conjecture. Certainly, they will say that some educators were wise and some were stupid. But who was wise and who was stupid? That remains to be seen.

While the verdict of history cannot be given in the present, it is possible to report some of the events that hap-

pened and to say with some assurance which are important. In the writer's judgment, there were five principal groups of facts about the reaction of American educators to the issue of communism in the U.S.A. in 1949.

1. *Leaders of public education took the position that Communists should not be allowed to teach in American schools.*

This position was taken unanimously by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators in its policy statement, *American Education and International Tensions*. Shortly after the publication of this statement, the following resolution, patterned closely after its text, was adopted by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association on July 8.

1. PRESERVATION OF DEMOCRACY

The National Education Association affirms that the foundations of our Ameri-

can system of government are built in our free public schools. The Association strongly asserts that all schools have an obligation to teach the rights, privileges, and the responsibilities of living in a democracy.

The responsibility of the schools is to teach the superiority of the American way of life, founded as it is on the dignity and worth of the individual; therefore, our youth should know it, believe in it, and live it continuously.

As a measure of defense against our most potent threat, American schools should teach about communism and all forms of totalitarianism, including the principles and practices of the Soviet Union and the Communist party in the United States. Teaching about communism does not mean advocacy of communism. Such advocacy should not be permitted in American schools.

Members of the Communist party shall not be employed in the American schools. Such membership involves adherence to doctrines and discipline completely inconsistent with the principles of freedom on which American education depends. Such membership and the accompanying surrender of intellectual integrity render an individual unfit to discharge the duties of a teacher in this country.

At the same time we condemn the careless, incorrect, and unjust use of such words as "Red" and "Communist" to attack teachers and other persons who in point of fact are not Communists, but who merely have views different from those of their accusers. The whole spirit of free American education will be subverted unless teachers are free to think for themselves. It is because members of the Communist party are required to surrender this right, as a consequence of becoming part of a movement characterized by conspiracy and calculated deceit, that they shall be excluded from employment as teachers and from membership in the National Education Association.

The Association charges the teaching profession with the obligation of providing

the best defense of democracy through full participation in making democracy really live and work.

While there were some votes against this resolution when it was put to a voice vote at the NEA meeting, it is correct to say that the resolution was carried by a large majority.

The statement of the Educational Policies Commission, according to the *NEA Journal* of September, 1949, "evoked an unprecedentedly large volume of press and radio comment":

Most news stories and editorials featured the commission's recommendations that members of the Communist party should not be employed as teachers and that the schools should teach about communism.

An analysis of 278 newspaper editorials which expressed opinions concerning the EPC recommendations revealed that 272 (97.8 per cent) of the editorials were basically favorable to the recommendations—of which number, 253 were completely favorable without qualification.

Nearly all the newspaper reports referred only to the paragraph about the employment of members of the Communist party in American schools. The paragraph following this one, which defended teachers who hold unpopular but noncommunist views, got very little attention from the press. Some critics of the Educational Policies Commission's statement suggested that the Commission hoped, by issuing it, to forestall attacks on the American schools and to gain support in public opinion for better financial support of the schools through federal aid and through state and local tax funds. It was also a fact that the num-

ber of avowed Communists teaching in American schools was extremely small. Estimates varied from ten to a hundred as the total, in all public schools and in all colleges and universities.

The essential proposition of the Policies Commission statement—that membership in the Communist party was equivalent to surrender of intellectual integrity and therefore made a person unfit to teach in American schools or colleges—had been stated first by President Allen of the University of Washington, as the basis for discharging two avowed Communists from the faculty of that university.

There was criticism of this proposition from a minority of educators in public schools, and from the American Association of University Professors. At the thirty-fifth annual meeting of this organization, the committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure reiterated its statement of 1947 concerning the right of a Communist to teach:

If a teacher, as an individual, should advocate the forcible overthrow of the government or should incite others to do so; if he should use his classes as a forum for communism, or otherwise abuse his relationship with his students for that purpose; if his thinking should show more than normal bias or be so uncritical as to evidence professional unfitness, these are the charges that should be brought against him. If these charges should be established by evidence adduced at a hearing, the teacher should be dismissed because of his acts of disloyalty or because of professional unfitness, and not because he is a Communist. So long as the Communist party in the United States is a legal political party, affiliation with that

party in and of itself should not be regarded as a justifiable reason for exclusion from the academic profession.

2. *Leaders of American higher education were divided on the proposition that membership in the Communist party should bar a person from teaching in colleges or universities.*

The opposition to this proposition was led by the American Association of University Professors, which argued that the test of a teacher's competence must lie in his actual teaching, not in his affiliation with an organization, even if that organization was the Communist party. They argued that a person should not be judged incompetent to teach unless he showed incompetence in his teaching, regardless of the company he kept in any association, as long as the organization was lawful. Since the Communist party was within the law, they argued that any teacher has as much right as any other citizen to belong to it and that this right should not be used to deprive him of his right to teach.

Chancellor Hutchins of the University of Chicago, speaking in June, 1949, at the 237th Convocation, to students, alumni, and the public, said:

If we apply any other test than competence in determining the qualifications of teachers we shall find that pressures and prejudice will determine them. In 1928 it was said that Al Smith could not be President because he would be subservient to a foreign power; and today in many places, and if not today it may happen tomorrow, anti-Catholic or anti-Jewish campaigns may mean that teachers who belong to those churches will not be able to practice their profession.

University presidents generally defended their own faculties by saying that they had no Communists. They then argued against loyalty oaths or other means that might be taken by state and federal governments to influence the appointment of faculty members and the content of their teaching. President Seymour of Yale, for example, said at the annual Commencement luncheon:

We shall appoint no Communists to our faculty; their presence here would mean the negation of academic freedom. But we shall permit no hysterical witch hunt. . . . We know our faculty and trust them in their allegiance.

Chancellor Day of Cornell was more explicit in his *Report to the Alumni, 1948-1949*. He said:

I see no warrant whatever for holding on the faculty of a college or university someone who avows his allegiance to communism. I get to this conclusion on the basis of a principle which lies at the very heart of a great educational institution, namely, that the faculty should be composed of free, honest, competent, inquiring minds, undertaking to find and disseminate the truth. No mind that is fettered or enslaved can possibly meet the requirements. Hence, it seems to me to follow inevitably that anyone who admits allegiance to the Communist party does not belong on a faculty such as ours. Some faculty members are reluctant to take that position firmly. Why? Because they are fearful of something that is very real, namely, the risk of the destruction of academic freedom if any kind of consideration is brought to bear in the selection and retention of staff that does not rest directly upon the appraisal of the individual's competence in his special field. There is a very real danger here, I can assure you, and I am perfectly aware of it.

We have this year been putting on a program of public lectures and forum discussions in which we have made a systematic attempt to obtain a clearer and more complete definition of the American tradition. One is desperately needed these days. It is needed to protect the right line against infiltration, not by communism, but by those who, under the cloak of attacking communism, proceed to attack something quite different. My hope is to get through to the entire company—faculty, students, alumni—the fact that this whole business is a matter of profoundly important social strategy. I do not think there is the slightest chance of persuading the American people that it is proper for a Communist to be teaching American youth. And personally, I think the American people on that point are right. Hence, why make the foolish mistake of undertaking, in defense of academic freedom, to argue that even an avowed Communist should be left undisturbed in the teaching faculty of a liberty-loving institution? That line cannot be held in my opinion. What I argue is that there is a line behind which we can protect the essentials of academic freedom, a line we can successfully defend if we will. That is what I want to see Cornell define its position clearly, unmistakably, and then fight through thick and thin to hold it, in defense of the great American liberal tradition.

These remarks of the heads of Yale and Cornell universities stated the facts about university faculty appointments in 1949 quite accurately. Probably not a single known Communist was appointed to a college or university faculty during 1949, and probably a score or even a hundred people who were known to have close Communist affiliations were denied appointment, for that reason alone, to university or college faculties during 1949.

3. *Teachers in schools and colleges participated less vigorously in unpopular civic and political organizations.*

In the atmosphere of insecurity and tension created by federal government loyalty investigations, "spy" trials, and state legislature efforts to require loyalty oaths of teachers, the general tendency was for teachers to become more cautious and conservative in their behavior both inside and outside the classroom. They hesitated about joining groups with unpopular causes, and they tended to avoid the study of controversial topics in their classes. The reality behind the teachers' timidity was the existence or the threat of such state laws as the Feinberg law in New York, which required written reports on the loyalty of every teacher and provided that membership in organizations listed by the New York State Board of Regents as "subversive" was a reason for dismissal.

4. *Educational leaders recommended that communism and the Soviet Union be studied in American schools, but critically.*

Bellwethered by President Eisenhower of Columbia University, educators high and low urged that American schools and colleges should teach about Russia and about communism, at the same time stressing the superiority of the American way of life. One response to this recommendation was an article in the *Young America Magazine*, which was used in junior high school classes. The following is a news release about this magazine:

In an article entitled "What Communism Is—And Why We Americans Don't Want It," *Young America Magazine* goes to the core of Communist doctrine and sets forth the American answers to Marx's theories.

Stating that the article was prompted by the recent NEA resolution urging that communism be explained in schools, *Young America's* editors go on to say that "the sound way to fight communism is to understand it. It is not enough merely to repeat the obvious truth that Russia has become a totalitarian dictatorship apparently bent on world imperialism. Understanding must begin with a study of the Marxian philosophy which gave communism its original impetus."

Briefly, the magazine sets forth Marx's theories on profit, the classless state, and the dictatorship of the proletariat. Following each of these three sections is a statement of America's answers to Marx. Although the article has been kept factual and objective, the editors leave no doubt that they strongly favor the American arguments and record.

While this example did not promise a dispassionate study of Marxism and of life in Russia, undoubtedly some of the universities, such as Columbia University in its Institute of Russian Affairs, were able to provide for a scholarly approach to this study. The net effect of this effort on the part of educators was probably to help the public distinguish between studying about communism and advocating communism, and thus to keep open the opportunity for dispassionate teaching and research on Russia in a few universities.

5. *Educational leaders resisted encroachment on the civil liberties of teachers.*

Although the press largely overlooked the part of the Educational Policies Commission statement which defended the right of teachers to espouse unpopular causes and to participate in politics, educational leaders were outspoken on this point. The lead in the National Educational Association was taken by the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, a working commission without "big names" which, incidentally, disagreed with the Educational Policies Commission on the question of permitting Communists to teach in the schools.

The National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education published in September, 1949, a report entitled *Grand Prairie, Texas*—"a case involving the civil rights of teachers and the ethical responsibilities of boards of education." This was a defense of five experienced teachers who were discharged without a hearing by the school board, presumably because these teachers had taken active part in promoting the candidacy of certain unsuccessful aspirants for membership on the school board. Harold Benjamin, dean of the College of Education of the University of Maryland, who is chairman of the Commission, introduced the report with the following statement:

In a totalitarian state, the complete control of a teacher's mind, as of the mind of every other subject-slave, is a number-one objective of government. In the United States, where the first duty of every teacher in the public educational system, from the nursery class to the university graduate

school, is the development of free, intelligent, honorable, and courageous citizenship, and where every teacher is his own chief instrument of instruction by virtue of his own character and example, it is unthinkable that a schoolboard should seek to exercise political thought-control over the members of its professional staff.

Was this attack on the teachers' rights as citizens, as well as on their rights as competent members of their profession, the result merely of a lack of understanding of basic rights and responsibilities on the part of the board of trustees; or was it rather a deliberate effort to prevent the demonstration, practice, and learning of good citizenship in Grand Prairie?

These are some of the important facts on which the judgment of history will be made concerning American education in 1949.

DETECTING DELINQUENCY-PRONE CHILDREN

WHILE there is little that the ordinary school can do to *cure* delinquency, there is much that it can do to *detect* the beginnings of delinquency, so that preventive treatment can be started early enough to do some good. This is one conclusion that comes out of the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, a research project in the study of juvenile delinquency in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The director of that Study, Edwin Powers, gives an overview of some of the findings in the Spring, 1949, issue of the *Harvard Educational Review*.

Two prediction techniques were used in the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study; one based on an analysis by three experts; the other based on teachers' opinions. Three experts (one psychiatrist and two social case

workers) all of whom had had experience with delinquents and training in writing social case histories of criminals, thus viewing the life of the criminal backwards, so to speak, attempted to predict criminality in the forward direction. After examining a wide variety of data relating to the child's personality, family, environment, and school record, these experts made predictive ratings as to the careers of these young boys (whose ages ranged from eight to eleven). The predictors used an 11-point rating scale, one extreme (-5) indicating the greatest probability of the development of a delinquent career, the other extreme (+5) representing an equal probability that the boy would live through the next six to ten years entirely free of delinquency. Between the extremes were varying degrees of probabilities. Since these predictions were made, ten years have elapsed. We can now attempt to verify them.

At about the time that these ratings were being made, the teachers (most of whom were first- or second-grade teachers) of these young boys were asked in an interview to give a frank report about the boy's personality and particularly about his general behavior and social attitudes. The teachers did not use the rating scale, but their opinions were carefully studied and interpolated on the scale so that their predictions could be considered reasonably comparable.

Here, briefly, are a few of the interesting results of this prediction study pertaining to one hundred boys, whose careers are known to us, and who were placed in our control or comparison group (that is, they were not subjected to the Study's corrective treatment that might have thwarted the predictions).

First, as to the experts' predictions: Of the sixteen boys who later became the most serious delinquents in this group of one hundred, all but one had been predicted delinquent; that is, on the "minus" side of the scale (-1 to -5). Of the fifteen whom we considered our next most seriously de-

linquent group, twelve had been predicted on the "minus" or delinquent side. In other words, the boys who really developed delinquent careers were identified easily by the experts (rough score: 87 per cent correct).

The teachers' "predictions" were substantially similar: thirteen of the sixteen boys who later became the most seriously delinquent had been placed on the "minus" side and eleven of the fifteen next most serious delinquents were placed on the "minus" side by an interpolation of the teachers' reports. It is evident, therefore, that teachers could identify these delinquents fairly well when they were in the first, second, or third grades (rough score: 77 per cent correct).

That is not the whole story. Another interesting finding was that many boys did *not* develop delinquent careers, though they had been predicted on the "minus" side. There were, for example, forty-seven boys (out of the one hundred) who did not become delinquent (as that term is usually understood), and yet the experts had placed about half of them, and the teachers about one-third, on the "minus" side. In other words, of the many young boys tagged "pre-delinquents," some became seriously delinquent (and thus the identifications were correct) but *most* of them did not.

Another predictive device involved teachers' rating of the boys aged nine and ten on twenty-six items. It was found that the boys who later became delinquent were much more frequently characterized by their teachers as follows:

1. Interest in school—"negativistic"
2. Self-confidence—"cocksure"
3. Sensitiveness to the needs of others—"cruel, spiteful, sarcastic, hardboiled"
4. Courage—"daredevil"
5. Talkativeness—"very loquacious"
6. Moods—either "inexpressive" or "frequently changing"

7. Responsibility—"irresponsible and entirely carefree"
8. Restlessness—"constantly on the move, irritable, fussing with hands, impatient"

In addition, teacher's ratings in the following four areas of behavior picked out the predelinquents:

1. Trouble-making behavior, such as "refusing to co-operate, blaming others for difficulties, and the like"
2. Show-off behavior, such as "seeking the limelight" or "acting silly"
3. Aggressive reactions, such as "quarreling," "fighting," "teasing"
4. Undesirable habits, such as "poor work habits," "nail-biting," etc.

Another major finding was that maladjusted children were a great deal like the predelinquents:

Pursuing this idea further we took three other groups of children (mostly nine- and ten-year-olds):

- a) A group of twenty-nine boys who later became seriously delinquent;
- b) A group of thirty-one boys who later were not considered delinquents but were poorly adjusted to life;
- c) A group of twenty-one boys who later were not considered delinquent and were well adjusted to life.

Comparing the ratings of the three groups on these very items we found that the maladjusted nondelinquent resembled the delinquent boy, though his ratings were not so extreme on the items mentioned. In fact, in every one of the eight items taken from the "descriptive rating scale" we found that the boy who was not delinquent, but nevertheless worried and unhappy, possessed the traits common to the delinquent more frequently than did the well-adjusted boy. The same finding was true as to the items on the "trait record card" (with the exception of aggressive behavior). In other words, in trying to select the future delinquents we

unavoidably included in our group a number of boys who did not become delinquent in later years and yet who needed guidance and help in making a happy adjustment to life. It is doubtful if any test or rating scale can make the sharp distinction at the first- or second-grade level between the boy who is not now delinquent but is going to express his reaction to frustration in a manner that is punishable and the boy who will express his reactions in a socially undesirable but unpunishable manner. (We should keep in mind that a delinquent act is punishable; an act that is not punishable is not delinquent.) A good clinic after an interview with the boy and a little investigation on the side could, no doubt, make this distinction, if it were considered important.

The results of this study are exceedingly important, for they indicate the possibility of a school's "screening" pupils at the age of nine or ten so as to select those who are vulnerable to delinquency and to emotional disturbance, as a basis for a therapeutic program to be organized as a joint school-community project.

The present writer has made some estimates, using data from several surveys of moral behavior and of emotional maladjustment, to indicate the number of children in the ordinary community who would need special therapeutic assistance. These estimates come to around 15 per cent. That is, by employing methods similar to those used in the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, about 15 per cent of any group of children aged nine or ten can be selected who are vulnerable to delinquency or to severe emotional disturbance.

The task of providing therapy for

these youngsters, of preventing them from becoming delinquent or seriously maladjusted, cannot be accomplished by the school alone. This is a community responsibility, with churches, recreation agencies, social agencies, courts, service clubs, business, and parents all involved in a really effective program. To meet this responsibility, a community should create something like a "Commission on Citizenship and Character," made up of representatives of the various community agencies that could serve in such a project. This commission should supervise the screening and then, through the professionally trained people in the community, work out an individual program for each vulnerable child. Along with these individualized programs, group programs of a recreational, religious, or social nature would, no doubt, be developed.

The plain truth is that we could do much to prevent delinquency and emotional disturbance on the basis of what we know, and with little or no additional expense. The country is waiting for a few communities to show the way toward using the knowledge and facilities that we already possess.

MIDCENTURY WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE

SINCE 1910 at ten-year intervals the people interested in the welfare of children and youth have met at the call of the President of the United States to take stock and plan ahead.

The 1950 conference should be one of the greatest of the series. President Truman has appointed an Executive Committee of prominent persons, with Mr. Leonard W. Mayo as chairman. Executive director of the conference is Melvin A. Glasser, formerly with the Red Cross, and chief consultant is Dr. Henry Helmholtz, of the Mayo Clinic.

Purposes of the Midcentury Conference on Children and Youth, as announced by the Executive Committee after their first meeting, are to—

- a) Bring together in usable form pertinent knowledge related to the development of children and indicate areas in which further knowledge is needed;
- b) Examine the environment in which children are growing up, with a view to determining its influence upon them;
- c) Study the ways in which the home, the school, the church, welfare agencies, and other social institutions, individually and co-operatively, are serving the needs of children;
- d) Formulate, through co-operative efforts of laymen and specialists, proposals for the improvement of parental, environmental, and institutional influences on children;
- e) Suggest means whereby these proposals may be communicated to the people and put into action.

One of the interesting things about this conference is the preliminary work which is being done by state and local Committees on Child Welfare. These grass-roots organizations are expected to come to the conference in Washington with problems and recommendations already formulated.

The date for the Midcentury Con-

ference will be the week of December 3, 1950.

UNESCO STARTS ITS FOURTH YEAR

AS THIS is being written, UNESCO is holding its Fourth General Conference, in Paris, with delegates from forty-six countries in attendance. The United States delegation consists of Assistant Secretary of State George V. Allen, chairman; Milton S. Eisenhower, president of Kansas State College, vice-chairman; Luther H. Evans, librarian of Congress; Reinhold Niebuhr, religious leader; and Martha B. Lucas, president of Sweetbriar College.

UNESCO has fared somewhat better than other international organizations in the face of the current division of the world, with Poland and Czechoslovakia participating actively in its program. The nonparticipation of Russia, though a severe handicap, has also made some of the beginning steps easier to take.

Evaluations of UNESCO are often made superficially. Perhaps another three years must pass before a fair evaluation can be made. But the world has so much at stake in UNESCO that it cannot hold back from criticizing and evaluating.

By this time the pattern of UNESCO's work has emerged clearly as consisting of two broad movements. One, entitled *fundamental education*, consists of aiding the less developed countries to increase education and scientific knowledge and skills among

the masses of their people. Director-General Bodet has said:

Something like 5 per cent of all the human beings in the world have completed high school. Probably not more than one-fourth of all our fellow-men on this planet have even a rudimentary grasp of science, history, geography, and the arts. Only half the human race can read and write.

UNESCO is now co-operating with member-states in the conduct of experimental projects in China, Haiti, and Colombia. Closely related to the program in fundamental education are educational surveys by UNESCO missions, such as those in Thailand and the Philippines, the latter made under the direction of Professor Floyd W. Reeves, of the University of Chicago.

A Seminar on Illiteracy and Adult Education was held in Brazil last summer and a Seminar on Rural Education was held in India. Publication was commenced in 1949 of the illustrated *Quarterly Bulletin of Fundamental Education*, as well as a monthly mimeographed review entitled *Abstracts and Bibliography*, issued in English, French, and Spanish editions.

This phase of UNESCO's work appears relatively simple and noncontroversial, from the point of view of educators in the United States and Europe. It is "safe" and quite likely to be successful. Furthermore, it is sure to be favored by the less developed nations, which are numerous in UNESCO. Greater emphasis upon this aspect of UNESCO's program was symbolized in the shift of the

director-general from an Englishman (Julian Huxley) to a Mexican (Jaime Torres Bodet).

The other broad movement in the work of UNESCO is that of strengthening international co-operation through the increase of communication and understanding between people of different countries. This appears to be a more complex and controversial problem than that of fundamental education. It involves primarily the countries which are more highly developed in technology and therefore more dangerous if they became a threat to world peace. Take, for example, the project for the study of the causes of international tensions, usually called the "tensions project." For this most complex and most important of problems, the United States has been called upon to furnish the leadership. Almost surely, the leader of this project should stay on the job for a minimum of two or three years, so as to give the ideas basic to the project a chance to gain momentum. Yet the project is about to enter its third year under its third director. Hadley Cantril stayed a year, Otto Klineberg stayed a year, and now Robert Angell is starting out. Perhaps the fault is not so much UNESCO's as that of the United States, which does not encourage its representatives to stay away from home to do an important job.

Another UNESCO project in the area of international understanding is that of textbook criticism. The school books of most countries characteris-

tically teach nationalism and do little to promote attitudes of international co-operation and understanding. Obviously, something must be done to encourage and help textbook writers do a better job of writing objectively. Efforts to do this between the two world wars failed, and now UNESCO must try again.

One of the best men in the world for this task, James Quillen, of Stanford University, was called to Paris for a year to work on the problem. He prepared a guide for textbook writers and made analyses of the problem which will be useful *provided* somebody does something to put his recommendations into effect. Now is the crucial time. If the United States and British National Commissions will take Quillen's suggestions seriously when they are published and practice them in their own countries, there is a good chance that other national commissions will do likewise. UNESCO has announced two seminars for the summer of 1950 to implement this work: one in Canada on "The Teaching of Geography as a Means of Developing International Understandings"; the other in Belgium on "The Improvement of Textbooks, Particularly History Books."

The success of UNESCO in the area of international understanding depends basically upon what the member-countries do about the recommendations of UNESCO and what they do with the findings of its experts and commissions. To make UNESCO successful, Americans can do nothing

more valuable than to stimulate and support their own National Commission in its work in America.

And what of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO? It is a good commission. Including representatives from most of the major educational, scientific, and cultural organizations in this country, it is closer to the people than are the parallel commissions in many other countries, where the members are picked by the government in power. The United States National Commission has grown in wisdom and experience and also in power and influence. But can it accomplish its task? This task was well stated by seventeen-year-old Hannelore Delheim, of Manhattan High School of Commerce, in a round-table discussion on the New York Times Youth Forum on the topic "Does UNESCO Point the Cultural Path to Peace?" She said, "Before UNESCO can work, we will have to destroy nationalism to some extent." The narrow kind of nationalism which breeds fear, hostility, and finally war between nations must be reduced before UNESCO can work, and the task of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO is to reduce that kind of nationalism in the United States.

Schools can work with the National Commission for UNESCO by encouraging youth to study UNESCO and to participate in some of its projects. The formation of an "International Relations Club" is one method. A pamphlet obtainable from the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, De-

partment of State, Washington, D.C., entitled *International Relations Clubs*, contains hints on how to organize clubs and suggests such projects as the exchange of letters, pictures, clippings, etc., between clubs in different countries, international song and dance programs, and participation in international work camps.

WORLD ASSEMBLY OF YOUTH HOLDS FIRST MEETING

AFTER two years of preparation, the first meeting of a new organization known as the World Assembly of Youth was held in Brussels, Belgium, during the first week of August, 1949. Delegates attended from twenty-eight nations, representing Western Europe, many parts of Africa, South America, and Canada. In reporting the meeting, the London *Times Educational Supplement* said:

What can WAY do that is not already being done in the numerous committees that take an interest in the affairs of youth? The council in plenary session decided on a number of projects for the first year which the executive must now set in motion.

Among these is a center of information and documentation on all youth problems. Such a center, it is considered, will enable WAY to provide young people with full and accurate information on all their main problems. Though this will call for a major effort of filing and classification if its service is to be effective, it will be a valuable practical service which is so far not provided on an international basis.

The same may be said of the second proposal to carry out a survey of the national and international institutions concerned with travel for young people for purposes of work, study, or leisure. Though much of

this work would take the form of support for existing national organizations, to provide a service in the international field on the lines already being attempted here by the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges would undoubtedly be useful, particularly for the Far East, South America, and Africa, where such work is less advanced than in Europe or the United States. The resolution put forward by M. Cuu (Viet Nam) should also command attention everywhere, particularly in this country where there is growing concern about the welfare of colored students. His suggestion that each national committee should submit details to WAY about its students in other countries so that WAY could inform the countries concerned with a view to their undertaking responsibility for their care and well-being gives the executive a concrete proposal on which it can sharpen its teeth.

It may be of interest to many of us in American education to be reminded that there are already other international youth organizations which are

decidedly active. We do not hear much about them, normally. When we do, we may dismiss them as noble but ineffectual gestures. Whether any of them has a practical influence on events is a legitimate question. But there are other implications. It would appear that young people around the world are actively concerned about major social issues. What is more, they are getting together. Such organizing may be no more than a training ground for later political life, but it has the virtue of a thoroughly international and inter-racial flavor. Remembering the later progress of some of our college political leaders of the twenties and thirties, we might find it worth while to take a look at these young people from time to time.

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

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WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT J.

HAVIGHURST, professor of education and secretary of the Committee on Human Development, at the University of Chicago, and ROBERT F. PECK, instructor in human development at the same institution. GEORGE F. KNELLER, assistant professor of education at Yale University, points out various techniques for vitalizing the teaching of history. LYLAH M. SIMMERS of the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Colorado and ROBERT A. DAVIS, professor of psychology and chairman of the Department of Psychology at George Peabody College for Teachers, present the results of a study of the training and experience of counselors in North Central Association schools. WILSON H. IVINS, assistant professor of education at Indiana University, and HERBERT WEY, principal of Appalachian High School, Boone, North Carolina, discuss the educational values of informal work experience, citing concrete examples of projects carried out in Appalachian

High School. ELIZABETH FLOOD, formerly a teacher in Jefferson High School, Portland, Oregon, and H. R. LASLETT, professor of educational psychology at Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon, report the results of a study of high-school stores. ALANSON C. HARPER, chairman of the Department of Social Studies of Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, Connecticut, describes a student poll held in the Roger Ludlowe High School in connection with a national election. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and CLIFFORD BEBELL, assistant in the same institution, present a list of selected references on the administration of secondary education.

Reviewers of books WILLIAM C. KVARACEUS, professor of education at Boston University. ALBERT V. MAURER, director of Student Teaching and Teacher Placement, Concordia College, River Forest, Illinois. EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English in Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois.

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VITALIZING HISTORY-TEACHING

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THE GOALS OF HISTORY

TRENDS in the teaching and learning of history in secondary schools reveal that less emphasis is being placed on the memorization of facts and more on the study of logical connections and the acquisition of broad concepts. The more progressive specialists in this field hold that one important function of history, as a branch of the social studies, is to convey the kind of information, foster the attitudes, and build the character that students will need in order to deal with present-day problems. Yet have these goals actually been achieved?

The general examinations of high-school and college graduates continue to reveal a deplorable lack of knowledge in the field of social studies, and, worse still, an inability to apply the knowledge that has been gained. Students do not acquire the kind of information they need to formulate historical judgments and to evaluate data. Fundamental concepts are not taught, largely because the teacher finds them too difficult to present. Thus many of these concepts, such as democracy, freedom, and the basic notions of political life, remain vague and incomprehensible to the student. This situation

is due, in part, to the sentimentality and shallowness of the older textbooks and, in part, to a method of teaching which puts a premium on meaningless memorization. The "progressive" methodology which has recently been introduced into the curriculums of many schools has also failed to produce the significant results predicted by its proponents.

The solution is not to be found in a return to formal drill and recitation. Investigation shows that formally taught history does not give students a better grasp of historical relationships and the complexities of concept. Pupils gain lamentably little understanding of basic ideas from purely verbal methods of teaching history.¹

The root of this learning deficiency lies in the fact that the material studied is too often unrelated to the student's world. Teen-agers are not capable of grasping legal, academic language, even if it is expressed simply. They spend years in school mulling over textbooks which they do not understand, data which they cannot analyze, and results which they cannot

¹ Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, *Psychology and the New Education*, pp. 444 ff. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944 (revised).

use. They "study for a test," but their accumulated knowledge fades quickly.

Contrast this with the skills and hobbies learned out of school hours! Consider the behavior patterns set by attending a movie! Textbooks should present history's panorama of human challenge, tragedy, and triumph in a manner adapted to a student's intellectual and emotional maturity and in such a way as to awaken his critical and appreciative insights.

MEANINGFUL HISTORY

So much for difficulties and deficiencies. What can be done about them? How does one go about teaching logical connection? How are concepts best acquired?

History is a record of man as an individual and as a social animal. At best it is only a partial record, compiled from available sources subject to constant revision, and eked out with intuitive insights on the part of the specialists who write it. History is not chronology. Students will not appreciate the human story by memorizing that in 1492 Columbus sailed the ocean blue; they will not grasp the dramatic significance of the American Revolution simply by remembering that Tom Paine wrote *Common Sense*. Rather, they need to be made aware of the motives that induced Columbus to sail to unknown lands; they need to grasp how the times and circumstances drove Paine to write his book.

The motive behind an event may be more significant than the event itself. Events and their significance

should be related to the student's own experience. "To know in general is easy," as Aristotle indicated, but to know the "when," the "wherefore," the "whereunto," and the "how much" is the final test of the informed.

Students learn best when they can identify themselves emotionally, as well as intellectually, with the problem at hand. It is useless to expect a class to study for the sake of study and to condemn the pupils for failure to appreciate academic history as the teacher presents it. The student will master intricate social concepts only if he is made to understand how they may contribute to his own personal growth and satisfaction.

Concepts of time, place, quantity, and motive should be presented as interrelated parts. For example, in studying the Northwest Ordinance, it is not enough to learn that six million acres of land were involved. Questions such as the following should be asked. "Why did the event occur in 1787?" "What was its place in the sequence of events?" "Who benefited from it?" "Did it fulfil all expectations?"

The use of this technique does not mean that students need to be given sales-talks on the advantages of history to their economic well-being. The teacher need not promise rich rewards to those pupils who study history his way. Rather, he should prepare his students to understand the age in which they live by studying the behavior, attitudes, and character traits exhibited in the past that might

improve social relationships in the future. Emulation of history's leaders may be used to induce better attitudes and better responses in the student's daily behavior. Leadership, followership, and responsibility in society will thus take on a greater significance, and the sacrifices of men, even to giving up their lives for humanity, will demonstrate the obligations of man to his fellow-man. Conversely, the greed and corruption of many historical characters will be analyzed for the damage done to human progress. In this instance, care must be taken lest the study of leaders be restricted to an analysis of their personalities, a method which has dominated history-teaching far too much. Great historical characters, it must be stressed, operate within the framework of a whole society, a whole culture.

History may thus be employed to teach lessons that can prevent personal and social disaster. Students will relive the soul-searching, the mental agony, the inner conflict, and the final triumph or defeat of great men throughout history. Our young people will use their imaginations to decide what they would have done at a given time and under similar circumstances. Out of such experiences, and the attendant discussion and debate, new modes of behavior can be formulated as an improvement on the old. Our young people must be trained to distinguish, as did the men whom they study, between the ideas that apply today, those that need to be discarded, and those that can be adapted to a

more complex national and international life.

The recent plague of quiz programs has exposed the public's lack of factual knowledge. Ridiculous answers are frequently given to even the simplest questions. However, success at answering this type of question is almost purely a matter of memory. In a recent examination in New York, one student quoted his textbook to the effect that the city's population was four million and the latest airplane was a Curtiss biplane—out-of-date facts, hence erroneous concepts. The teacher should lead the way in stressing those facts that are essential to a more correct interpretation of issues.

Facts and events should be fitted into a pattern; for they are essentially quantitative measurements which delineate the nature and extent of human progress. Facts and events determine outcomes, of course, but outcomes also determine subsequent facts. The talented teacher can bring students to predict the factual or conceptual outcomes that may be expected under a given set of circumstances. The question is always: "Now that you know what was going on at the time, what do you suppose was the inevitable outcome?" The connecting thread in all stories is conflict and change, and that thread is spun from the hopes and aspirations of a people and its leaders. With the mosaic of men's hopes laid before him by his teacher, the student sees how historical facts and events fit piece by piece into the design. The student

learns to distinguish the pattern of history.

That so many facts are forgotten is an incisive comment on their value and usefulness. Data should be related not only to the scheme of historical development but also to the student's immediate experience. The way to develop an informed judgment is to place historical situations before the student so vividly that he adopts the problem as his own and reacts to it as to a matter of personal interest. In this connection, research has demonstrated that "pupils can understand historical episodes better than descriptions and expositions."² Episodes bring out the personal aspects which the student is best able to relate to his own experience. The question the student then asks himself is: "What would I have done in such and such a situation?"

A vital task in history-teaching is the creation of perspective and critical insight based on an appreciation, or at least a tolerance, of the new and different. For example, in the greatest American leaders there was a spirit of aggressive nationalism, sometimes healthy, at other times pernicious. The student should realize that such attitudes were understandable in view of the circumstances surrounding the birth of the Republic and the conditions under which natural growth took place. He should also learn, however,

² *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1138. Prepared under the auspices of the American Educational Research Association, Walter S. Monroe, editor. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

that the superego of an ardent nationalist is out of place nowadays in a nation dedicated to world democracy and international understanding. Despite the glamor with which most history textbooks invest the story of our national aggrandizement and foreign conquest, the concept of nationalism is outdated. Taught thus, history becomes a laboratory for personal and social analysis, and the student comes to appreciate his place in a world which hitherto, in his eyes, had considered him expendable.

THE DRAMATIC APPROACH

Indispensable in teaching concepts is the dramatic approach. Homer was a history teacher, and his lessons are still studied because of the human drama in them. The Trojan War lives again because of Homer's dramatic portrayal of the leading characters. The Bible, remote history that it is, remains a universal drama because its practical lessons in human behavior transcend time and circumstance. The dramatic approach brings the student into vital relationship with historical characters and their problems; once he has participated with a historical personage in a historical situation he can never completely forget the experience.

The dramatic approach also affords a deeper understanding of why people behaved as they did. George Bernard Shaw stated in his preface to *Saint Joan* that one could not really appreciate Joan unless one could condemn her to burn. In other words, the great

heroine could be measured only in terms of the thinking and the events that surrounded and eventually destroyed her. In the same way, the American Revolution cannot be understood without knowledge of the British social customs and the ideals of that time, or the Civil War without an appreciation of both the slaveholder's point of view and that of the abolitionist. The student must construct—with concrete facts—the stage setting and backdrops of the period under examination. He must actively play the role of the historical characters.

EXAMPLES

As a case study of the use of the above precepts, the incident of the Alien and Sedition Acts may be employed. Before presenting this early piece of American legislation, the teacher should have clearly in mind its lessons for the contemporary world. Our national experience has demonstrated that the Acts were essentially undemocratic and tyrannous. They tended to deny the right of a minority opposition to criticize the majority party in power. Therefore, the background and purpose of the Acts might be introduced to the students somewhat as follows:

Suppose one evening two men claiming to be FBI agents appeared at your home to arrest your father for "sedition." His crime, they said, was that of writing a letter to the local newspaper criticizing the president. You would be dumfounded. Such things do not happen in the United States.

Yet, as you will see, incidents of this kind

were frequent under our second president, John Adams. A man's right to express his political opinions was effectively suppressed, unless, of course, his opinions tended to agree with those of Adams' Federalist party. All this a scant seven years after the Bill of Rights had specifically guaranteed to every American citizen the freedom of speech, press, and assembly!

In studying the story of the swift rise and fall of tyranny in the early United States, picture to yourself what it would mean to our democratic way of life if a president nowadays should decree imprisonment for anyone who dared raise a voice against government policy as advocated by the party in control. What would such a step mean to you, your family, or your friends who did not vote for this president?

The suppression of opposition is a characteristic of the governments of many countries today, but it is not tolerated in the United States. Why is this so? Is it not because a sufficient number of Americans insist on preserving their right to speak up at all times? Are you interested in preserving this right?

The essential facts of the Alien and Sedition Acts may be outlined in the following manner:

During the Napoleonic War in 1798, the Federalists supported England while the Republican party believed that the nation should abide by the Treaty of Alliance which it had contracted with France during our Revolution. Interwoven with this controversy was the Federalists' fear of a rising democratic revolutionary movement whose "sinister ends" were, they charged, being sedulously served by many Frenchmen in America.

Hence, though both England and France mercilessly attacked American shipping throughout their war, the Adams administration chose to see only the French threat. The Federalists pointed to France, in in-

creasingly stronger terms, as the one enemy to be feared.

Only once during this period did John Adams receive popular support for his French policy. That was when French officials demanded a bribe in return for a settlement of the dispute between the two nations. With the revelation of this "X.Y.Z. Affair" (define), the nation rallied around the government.

The war scare over, Republican criticism of Federalist policies and of President Adams began anew. It was then that the Federalists, fearful of subversive tendencies, decided to pillory Republican "brawlers against the government." The Alien and Sedition Acts were rushed through Congress in June and July of 1798.

Original documentation, of course, includes the Acts themselves, along with suitable comment from Thomas Jefferson. Such direct quotes as the following from Jefferson's first inaugural are useful.

If there be any among us who wish to dissolve this union or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it.

The class should be challenged to interpret and interpolate this important, though abstruse, admonition.

Or take this excerpt from a letter written by Jefferson to one of his protégés after the passage of the Acts and commanding a more theoretical approach to issues.

I join you therefore in branding as cowardly the idea that the human mind is incapable of further advances. This is precisely the doctrine that the present despots of the earth are inculcating, and their friends are re-echoing. . . . But, thank heaven, the

American mind is already too much opened to listen to these impostures; and while the art of printing is left to us, science can never be retrograde.

Could any message be more appropriate to class discussions of the threats to freedom that exist in the world today?

From their study of the Alien and Sedition Acts, students should derive information of lasting value, such as the following:

Throughout history countless tyrants have resorted to persecution and suppression in order to remain in power. Political groups, too, have imposed their programs on the people by pushing the opposition underground. Even today, it is impossible in some states for minority parties to gain a place on the ballot.

The Federalists tried tyranny in 1798. Frightened by the rise of Republicanism, they succeeded, by stirring up a hysterical fear of France, in passing two bills deliberately designed to throttle all opposition. The Alien and Sedition Acts plainly undermined the Constitution, since both pieces of legislation imposed limitations on free speech and a free press.

The election of 1800 brought an end to Federalist control. The Alien Acts, designed to last only two years, were allowed to expire; the Sedition Act also quietly lapsed. Every man convicted under the latter measure was released from prison, and his fine was returned.

President Thomas Jefferson's victory in the election spelled defeat for the Federalists' hopes. So crushed was the party that for twenty-four years thereafter Jefferson and his two chief followers, Madison and Monroe, were to retain the uninterrupted support of the majority of American voters. Notable is the fact that Jefferson, far from retaliating against the Federalists in spirit of vengeance, took no action. His magnanimity does him

credit in the same measure as the peaceful defeat of the Acts at the polls does credit to the integrity of American democracy.

To stimulate discussion and active participation in learning, such questions as the following might be useful:

Do you think that such legislation as the Alien and Sedition Acts is ever justified in a democracy? If so, why and when?

What relation did the Acts have to freedom of speech and press?

If you, instead of Jefferson, had been president of the United States, what would have been your attitude toward the Federalists and what action would you have taken? Do you think Jefferson was too soft?

Has there been any parallel in recent years to Jefferson's solution after his election?

The Alien and Sedition Acts were called "reactionary." How were they? What does "reactionary" mean?

How was it possible to foist such obviously unpopular legislation on the whole nation? Under what conditions would it be possible today?

Finally, the teacher should be careful to bring out the Federalist point of view. It was not a case of heroes and villains but of a stark and deep-rooted difference in social and political attitudes. Both parties were sincere in their preferences, and both believed that they were serving America's interests. A free election showed, however, that Federalism was a minority opinion.

THE ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM

The base of teaching operations is naturally the classroom, conceived as a laboratory equipped with all the apparatus necessary for study and ex-

perimentation. There should be an adequate supply of up-to-date and period maps, readily available to both student and teacher. Ample room should be afforded for projects, group investigations, and varied types of intellectual and physical activity. The furnishings should reflect the spirit of free inquiry and be adapted to the material under consideration; teachers should not be forced to adapt procedures to classroom fixtures.

Specifically, chairs and tables should be movable to facilitate group activities. The history room should have a basic, open-shelf reference library and a radio and a phonograph, so that students may constantly be in touch with current events and listen to great speeches, outstanding radio dramas, and the best in literature and music. A screen and projector should be on hand or on ready call. The ideal social-studies classroom is a place for students to use and enjoy—visually, emotionally, and aesthetically, as well as mentally.

While the classroom is the base, it is not the limit of the student's activity. In studying current events, for example, students grasp the theory more readily if they visit places of interest and consult officials. Historic monuments are to be found in every community. Dramatic presentations which use these monuments as backgrounds are not only highly valuable as mediums for student learning, but may also become instructive to members of the community. When outstanding films or plays of historical

significance are presented, commercially or otherwise, the class may attend in a body. Experimentation has shown that visual and auditory aids materially cut study time and increase the rate of retention.³ The teacher should not neglect the school and town libraries. Progressive libraries today offer far more than the usual reference material.

Teachers who lack these mechanical aids have a greater challenge to meet and must draw on their imagination and resourcefulness. Current periodicals and daily newspapers are usually available and can be used as a basic minimum. The use of broad background reading stimulates student discussion much more than the use of a single textbook. Discussions should be led, never dominated, by the teacher, and they should be handled in such a way as to draw out the participant's own thoughts. Teachers should resist efforts to railroad students into fixed conclusions.

The importance of instructional leadership must, under no circumstance, be minimized. Even with tools, the teacher will need to concentrate on the fine art of lecturing. The lecturing technique should not predominate, as it often does at the college level, but may sometimes be

the best way to present in succinct and effective form the essential purpose and value of the lesson. The lecture also provides an informational background which the student could otherwise obtain only through more study time than he can afford. In general, the lecture should serve as an introduction and guide for further study. It should be delivered in such a way that the student will think about the material which is being presented rather than feel obliged to regurgitate its facts.

ACTUAL EXPERIMENTATION

Some of the ideas and challenges proposed here have been put to the test in the University of Miami experiment. In the teaching of American history at Miami the problems of labor-capital relations were handled by a combination of varied readings and oral reports. The responsibility for organizing the problems was placed on the pupils. A minimum library was set up in each room, and groups were formed to cope with research problems. A democratically organized classroom utilized the discussion method. The results were gratifying, in that students placed just slightly above the norm in standard tests of academic achievement. In short, without having a large daily factual diet, the students retained most of the general principles and facts acquired in their course.⁴

³ a) Daniel C. Knowlton and J. Warren Tilton, *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1929.

b) Philip Justin Rulon, *Sound Motion Picture in Science Teaching*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XX. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933.

⁴ Charles C. Peters, "Teaching History and the Social Studies for Citizenship Training," *School and Society*, LXVII (January 10, 1948), 17-20.

Material with a high degree of dramatic and experiential reality is thus essential to good history-teaching. Abstract reasoning, which matures later in life, should be a secondary consideration. The primary consideration should be an appeal, not simply to the visual or the auditory senses, but to all the senses, in order that history's great lessons may become a vital part of the student's make-up.

MEETING THE CHALLENGE

The accusation that will be leveled against these proposals is that they make learning too easy and fail to toughen the academic hide for more formidable learnings to come. Yet such an accusation does not take into account the problem of long-term educational accomplishment. Unfortunately, the tendency of our schools is

still to measure educational efficiency in terms of knowledge acquired, without any guaranty—sometimes even without any concern—that the knowledge shall be useful in later life, that it shall contribute directly to personal happiness, to vocational success, and to an understanding of social obligations and responsibilities.

It may be granted that words and vicarious experience are the most economical way of presenting the long human story. It may also be agreed that many students will eventually come to study on more abstract levels, at which weighty documents and legal expositions are no longer repelling and incomprehensible. However, the student will not so easily reach this stage, or even desire to attain it, if history has not first been presented in a way which appeals to his live and youthful imagination.

TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF COUNSELORS IN NORTH CENTRAL SCHOOLS

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STURTEVANT AND STRANG¹ in 1929 made a study of 100 deans of girls in 33 states which showed trends during the previous two decades. Of the 100 deans, 95 reported having the Bachelor's degree, 38 had the Master's degree, but none had a Doctor's degree. Ninety-seven of the deans had been classroom teachers, and the average experience in classroom teaching was approximately 11 years. Thirty-five deans had been teachers in elementary-school grades, and 93 had worked in secondary schools. Eighteen were experienced principals, and 15 had been heads of departments. Their experience in fields other than education included travel, homemaking, office work, journalism, and welfare work.

In 1932 Parry² prepared a report on

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 393. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

² Paul C. Parry, "The Training and Certification of Guidance Counselors in 1930-31." Master of Arts thesis, Stanford University, 1932.

training and certification of guidance counselors in the United States. He reported that in 1930-31 only the states of New York and Pennsylvania required specified training and experience for granting guidance certificates. The New York program was written into state law and specified the functions of the guidance counselor: personal, experiential, and educational qualifications; professional course work; and two types of certificates, based on amount of training. Pennsylvania also offered two types of certificates and specified the experience, training, and course work required for each. Parry reported that Mississippi and Maryland were planning future certification of counselors; that California had set up a required program of training for counselors; and that the Ohio State Advisory Committee on Guidance had issued a bulletin specifying the irreducible minimum requirements for beginning counselors, plus recommended qualifications.

In 1938, two of the better-known studies of guidance programs were

published. Miller and Lefever³ reported results based on 246 questionnaires distributed among high schools of all sizes. In these high schools, 43 per cent of the guidance workers had had at least one course in guidance while in training; 14 per cent of the small and 68 per cent of the large high schools had guidance counselors; 50 per cent of the schools had deans of boys, and nearly two-thirds had deans of girls. These authors reported the trend to be away from home-room organization, basing their opinion on the fact that only one-third of the schools included in their survey reported this type of organization. Their report also showed that one-half of the schools administered intelligence tests and three-fourths gave achievement tests, but not many even among the large schools gave personality inventories, questionnaires, or aptitude tests.

Altstetter,⁴ in a report on guidance services in 200 selected secondary schools, stated that during 1938 guidance services were less well organized and less effectively operated than any other phase of secondary-school activity. In his rating of schools from various sectional rating organizations, he studied 89 schools in the North Central Association area. Of the 89 schools, 22 per cent were in the top quarter, and another 22 per cent were in the lowest quarter. This rating of

guidance programs is interesting from the standpoint of distribution, for schools in the North Central Association area are considerably outranked by those in New England, Middle States, and Western areas, and only Southern and Northwest area schools have a large percentage in the lowest quarter.

PROBLEM AND METHOD

The purpose of the present study is to give an authentic picture of guidance work and workers in approved high schools in the twenty states of the area supervised by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools. The study was planned to obtain two types of information. In the first section of a check list, counselors were asked to report their training and their work experience, both in education and in other fields. In the second section, the same counselors were asked to make recommendations concerning the training, experience, and personal qualifications⁵ that they considered essential to success in guidance work. Thus the findings provide a picture of both the theory of guidance counseling developed in recent years and the practical experience of counselors.

Names of counselors at work in the secondary schools in the twenty states of the North Central area were obtained from the chairmen of state committees of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central

³ Mildred E. Miller and D. Welty Lefever, "Teachers Consider Themselves Counselors," *Clearing House*, XIII (December, 1938), 212-15.

⁴ M. L. Altstetter, "Guidance Service in Two Hundred Secondary Schools," *Occupations*, XVI (March, 1938), 513-20.

⁵ Results of this particular section are omitted from this report.

Association of Secondary Schools or from superintendents of approved schools. A letter was then sent to each counselor in the schools; altogether, 620 letters were mailed. With the letters of explanation were inclosed a copy of the check list and a self-addressed envelope. Four hundred and

TABLE 1

HIGHEST DEGREE HELD AND HIGHEST DEGREE RECOMMENDED BY SECONDARY-SCHOOL COUNSELORS

HIGHEST DEGREE	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS	
	Holding Degree	Recommending Degree
Bachelor's.....	97	48
Master's.....	292	311
Doctor's.....	17	9
Unimportant.....		6
Total.....	406	374

six replies were received, a return of 65 per cent. In a number of instances, check lists were sent to more than one counselor in a given school. Six hundred and twenty check lists were sent to 559 schools, and the 385 schools which returned at least one check list represent 69 per cent of the schools approached.

ACADEMIC DEGREES

Degrees earned.—Table 1 shows the professional degrees the respondents have earned and the degrees that they consider desirable for counselors. Of the 406 counselors reporting, 97 have only a Bachelor's degree (61 in the arts, 31 in science, and 5 in miscellane-

ous fields), but most of them reported some graduate work toward a Master's degree. Two hundred and ninety-two counselors, almost 72 per cent of the total, have earned the Master's degree (243 in the arts, 26 in science, and 23 in miscellaneous subjects). Many of these reported advance work toward a doctorate. Of the 17 counselors who have already achieved the doctorate, 12 have the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and 5 the degree of Doctor of Education.

Degrees recommended.—Of the 374 counselors who specified the degree they considered essential, 311 placed the minimum at the Master's degree, and 9 specified a Doctor's degree. Only 48 would accept a Bachelor's degree as minimum. Only 6 thought the degree unimportant, and some of these commented that they merely meant personal qualities should outrank academic training.

Some of the counselors indicated the fields in which the degrees should be earned. The largest number of recommendations (237) was merely for the M.A. degree; the next largest number (43) named the M.A. in guidance and counseling. Scattered returns mentioned personnel, education, and psychology as fields in which a degree could be profitably earned.

TRAINING OF COUNSELORS

Training received.—Table 2 itemizes courses the counselors have studied and the courses that they recommend for counselors. It is significant that, in the field of guidance and counseling,

the respondents added to the check list such courses as case studies, occupational information, organization and administration of guidance, job analysis, principles and practices in

been trained in the subject, though only 285 counselors checked it. Only 238 counselors had studied vocational guidance, and only 233 were trained in techniques of counseling. Less than

TABLE 2
TRAINING COURSES REPORTED BY FOUR OR MORE COUNSELORS
AND COURSES RECOMMENDED

COURSE	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS		COURSE	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS	
	Trained in Course	Recommending Course		Trained in Course	Recommending Course
Courses in guidance and counseling:			Courses in psychology— <i>continued</i> :		
Educational guidance.....	285	367	Social psychology.....	132	258
Vocational guidance.....	238	345	Adult psychology.....	111	203
Techniques of counseling.....	233	362	Dynamics of human adjustment.....	57	262
Personal and social guidance.....	182	338	Genetic psychology.....	51	119
Case studies.....	13	Educational psychology.....	15
Occupational information.....	12	Statistics.....	8
Guidance organization and administration.....	9	General psychology.....	7
Job analysis.....	8	Psychiatry.....	4
Courses in social problems:			Research courses:		
Sociology.....	209	278	Testing.....	256	320
Management methods.....	52	123	Methods of research.....	178	241
Industrial personnel.....	46	164	Evaluation of personnel data.....	121	274
Character education.....	6	Miscellaneous courses:		
Labor problems and policy.....	4	Biology.....	142	151
Courses in psychology:			Anthropology.....	29	75
Adolescent psychology.....	255	348	Philosophy of education.....	9
Child psychology.....	229	278	Extra-curriculum activities.....	4
Mental hygiene.....	157	318	Remedial reading.....	4
Abnormal psychology.....	136	235			

guidance, occupational surveys, and clinical procedures. In part, these findings reflect the dominance of vocational counseling in some regions. The courses reported also indicate that some teacher-training institutions require much more technical training than do others.

Educational guidance rated highest in the number of counselors who had

half the counselors were trained in personal and social guidance work.

These low percentages are due in part to the youth of the guidance movement and in part to the years of service already given by many of the counselors. Special courses were not offered at the time many of these men and women were in training, and they did not receive training in guidance

until or unless they did graduate work during recent years. There may be significance in the fact that 309 counselors have advanced degrees, provided these counselors have earned their degrees recently and have therefore received professional training in guidance and counseling.

The same statements apply to the data on courses in social problems. In this field relatively few respondents added courses not included on the check list. This fact would seem to indicate that most institutions require only basic courses in social relationships. It is of interest to note how few counselors had received training in industrial personnel work. Since somewhat more than half the counselors reported having studied sociology, it may be assumed that this was a basic course, prerequisite to other work.

The information about the psychology courses indicates that only adolescent psychology and child psychology were included in the training of as many as half the counselors.

The training in research and in miscellaneous courses presents much the same picture. Training in testing was reported by more than half the counselors. The low figures in research work may be due partially to the fact that some institutions do not require research for the Master's degree. The total in evaluation of personnel data does not seem so low when one recalls how recently personnel departments have been established in many colleges and universities.

Summarizing, we find that only a

little more than half the counselors have taken courses in guidance and counseling, about half of them have studied a basic course in sociology, but only one-tenth have studied the more specialized courses in industrial relations. In the field of psychology, more than half the counselors have studied the basic courses in adolescent psychology and child psychology, but less than half have studied in the fields of mental hygiene, abnormal psychology, or social psychology, and only about one-fourth have studied adult psychology. More than half the counselors have had some training in testing, but only a very small proportion have studied methods of research or the techniques of evaluating data.

Courses recommended.—The recommendations for training made by these counselors, whose practical experience qualifies them to make suggestions to teacher-training institutions and to other members of their profession, are also shown in Table 2.

Courses from the check list recommended by more than 300 counselors include educational guidance, techniques of counseling, vocational guidance, personal and social guidance, adolescent psychology, mental hygiene, and training in testing.

Courses from the check list recommended by 200-300 counselors include sociology, child psychology, abnormal psychology, social psychology, adult psychology, dynamics of human adjustment, methods of research, and evaluation of personnel data. Courses recommended by 100-200 counselors

include management methods, industrial-personnel techniques, genetic psychology, and biology.

These recommendations represent much work on the part of the counselors in analyzing the training needed by teachers in preparation for guidance work and in taking time to report their opinions. The suggestions are, therefore, worthy of careful analysis and consideration by all who plan either to give or to take training for guidance work.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Table 3 summarizes teaching experience in terms of years, as reported by the 406 counselors and the recommendations of 127 counselors. A total of 344 counselors regarded experience in classroom teaching as valuable background for their work, but only 127 recommended a particular number of years of teaching. The mode of the specific recommendations is five years of experience. Numerous counselors also recommended relatively inexperience

enced workers as newcomers in their own field.

The subject fields in which these counselors have taught and in which they recommended teaching are summarized in Table 4. The five fields in which they have most frequently served are (1) social sciences, (2) English, speech, and journalism, (3) mathematics, (4) sciences, and (5) vocational education. The fact that the social sciences and English and its relat-

TABLE 3

AMOUNT OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING
THAT COUNSELORS HAD AND AMOUNT
THEY RECOMMENDED

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS	
	With Experience	Recom- mending Experience
1-5.....	66	104
6-10.....	101	21
11-20.....	160	2
Over 20.....	79
Total.....	406	127

TABLE 4

SUBJECT FIELDS IN WHICH COUNSELORS HAD TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND IN
WHICH THEY RECOMMENDED EXPERIENCE

SUBJECT FIELD	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS		SUBJECT FIELD	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS	
	With Experience	Recom- mending Experience		With Experience	Recom- mending Experience
Social science.....	234	119	Physical education, health, coaching.....	42	10
English, speech, journalism	143	28	Elementary grades.....	34	2
Mathematics.....	129	10	Fine arts.....	18	1
Science.....	117	22	Miscellaneous.....	8
Vocational education.....	88	25	Extra-curriculum subjects.....	3
Guidance.....	51	45			
Languages.....	42			

ed fields head this list is reflected in the recommendations. A large number of counselors believe that these two fields help the teacher acquire a broader range of interests and a more tolerant viewpoint than would some other fields of study.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Experience in education.—Because of overlapping, the totals for superin-

trative educational experience for counselors were varied. Table 5 shows that a total of 186 counselors recommended some kind of administrative experience in education, but written comments were conflicting. Many counselors stated, in effect, that successful administrators require qualities of leadership which are unsuitable to counselors and that experience in administrative work would be a handi-

TABLE 5
WORK EXPERIENCE OF 406 COUNSELORS AND EXPERIENCE RECOMMENDED

POSITION	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS		POSITION	NUMBER OF COUNSELORS	
	With Experience	Recommending Experience		With Experience	Recommending Experience
Business and industry.....	302	42	Industrial personnel.....	32	7
Public-school principal.....	189	113	Armed forces.....	30
Public-school supervisor.....	113	44*	Government employment.....	28
Miscellaneous jobs.....	91	195†	Social welfare.....	27	31
Public-school superintendent...	88	29	Homemaking.....	15	1
Youth organizations and recreational groups.....	65	21	Journalism.....	13
Farming.....	55	Artistic work.....	11
Armed service personnel work..	43	Manual labor.....	5

* Includes "other administrative work."

† Recommendations were for "varied experience."

tendents, principals, and other types of administrators in Table 5 do not mean that 390 of the total of 406 counselors had been administrators. However, allowing for superintendents who had been promoted from principalships and for principals who had been promoted from supervisory positions, there is still a predominance of administrators in the group.

Educational experience recommended.—Comments in regard to adminis-

cap. Quite a large group justified their recommendation of administrative experience by saying that it gave the counselor background for a more cooperative attitude toward administrative requirements and a broader picture of the educational program.

Work experience outside education.—Table 5 also includes a summary of work experience other than educational. Business and industry predominate over other types of work because of

the variety of jobs which can be classified in this category. It is worth noting that, except in education, work with various youth organizations and recreational groups was second in rank. The prevalence of vocational counselors among those reporting doubtless explains the fact that farming ranks third. Recency of service in the armed forces probably was a factor in placing armed-service personnel work fourth.

Non-educational work experience recommended.—The wide variety of experience listed by many of the counselors explains the frequent recommendation that "the more varied work experience a counselor has, the better." Other comments made by large numbers of counselors were: "Work in as many different areas as possible"; "Get your hands dirty so you know some of the problems of manual labor"; "Work at anything which puts you in contact with people."

Only three specific areas were mentioned by more than ten counselors: business and industry, social welfare, and youth organizations. None of the three lacks justification, in the minds of thoughtful people, as valuable experience for guidance workers.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Approximately three-fourths of the counselors in the area studied hold advanced professional degrees. However, many of the degrees were earned before teacher-training institutions offered training in guidance work. Only seven guidance courses were included

in the training of as many as half of the counselors. In the order of frequency of mention, these were: educational guidance, testing, adolescent psychology, vocational guidance, techniques of counseling, child psychology, and sociology.

Specific and implied recommendations made on the check lists for training of counselors are given in the following paragraphs.

Counselors should be required to earn a professional degree in the field. Minimum requirements should include: techniques of counseling; personal, social, educational, and vocational guidance; adolescent, social, abnormal, child, and adult psychology; techniques of testing, methods of research, and evaluation of personnel data; mental hygiene, sociology, and dynamics of human adjustment.

Of the 406 counselors reporting, 160 (39 per cent) had had classroom teaching experience ranging from eleven to twenty years, and more than half the counselors had done their teaching in the field of social science. English and its related fields, mathematics, and science followed in that order of frequency. Administrators dominated the picture, probably because many small schools either could not find specialists or could not afford them. Administrators therefore attempted to initiate the program. Varied work experience of the counselors included everything from truck-driving to band-leading. The counselors were almost unanimous in the recommendation that both classroom teaching and

various kinds of noneducational work experience should be part of the background of the counselor.

General recommendations which seem to grow out of the findings from this study can be grouped in three areas.

As a move toward raising standards of the profession, candidates for training in guidance work should be carefully screened for personal qualities and professional possibilities. Screening for professional possibilities should include scholarship at least somewhat above average, broad interests in cultural fields, ambition and energy and vitality, and *esprit de corps*.

Students who have completed their training for guidance work should be evaluated by their instructors, not only on the basis of academic marks, but also on the basis of their development in qualities considered essential in counselors and of their potential

ability for the work. Teacher-training institutions should place more emphasis on guidance work when training teachers for elementary grades and for rural and small-town schools. The present emphasis appears to be mainly on training guidance workers for secondary schools and for higher institutions. The scope of the work must be larger, and trained counselors must be made available to communities of varied sizes and types of culture. Basic training for all guidance workers must include general emphasis on attitudes, personality, social skills, and philosophy of life, plus specific emphasis in the fields for which the student is training. State departments of education should work toward the securing of legislation setting up minimum standards of training and experience for counselors. Professional standards for the work should be raised through state certification of counselors.

CAPITALIZING ON EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF INFORMAL WORK EXPERIENCE

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MOST progressive secondary educators have long since accepted the values of planned co-operative work experience in the secondary-school curriculum. Few, however, have yet been willing to capitalize on less formal varieties of the same experience. The reason is probably part of a significant weakness in the program of secondary education, which persists despite the fact that it has been isolated, recognized, and generally condemned. This weakness lies in the failure of educators to make use of available real-life resources as basic material for educative experiences.

INFORMAL WORK EXPERIENCES ARE EDUCATIVE

This seems to be the situation with respect to informal work experiences which have no direct connection with a formally organized program of co-operative work experience. Yet a few secondary schools have come to recognize the values of such informal experiences in the pattern of learning of every high-school boy and girl and

have made positive plans and followed aggressive courses of action for the inclusion of these experiences in the pattern which they offer. Typical of these schools is Appalachian High School at Boone, North Carolina.

Work experience is the experience which students have when they engage in any activity that results in the production of goods or services and which represents a task that needs to be done. With respect to the absence of the "made work" or "artificially contrived activity" aspect of this experience, we should recognize that the informal work experience results in production of goods or services which are actually needed quite as much as does formally organized work experience.

In the realm of the informal work experiences which are represented in this discussion lies one of the secondary school's greatest opportunities for enriching its curriculum. This opportunity was recognized at Appalachian High School, and efforts were made to plan for these experiences and make

possible their integration in the pattern of worth-while educative experiences of the students of the school.

Appalachian High School, like other high schools, had for years sponsored many work activities without considering seriously whether or not these activities contained educational objectives or resulted in desirable educational outcomes. Sales campaigns of many types had been carried on, mainly for the purpose of raising money. School clean-up days had been held. Certain groups of pupils had participated in community-sponsored activities which required much work on the part of these pupils. Some pupils had tended Victory Gardens for themselves and the school, and others had worked in the community cannery, preserving food for the lunchroom. Farm boys had assisted in the building of an agricultural shop. These activities had increased to such an extent that the pupils' other school work suffered. The administration and faculty began to ask themselves what the purposes and educational values of these activities were.

At first, the chief answer was that money was raised or something was produced. After several discussions, however, other values began to be recognized, some of which were: developing ability to meet the public, learning to be salesmen, learning how to co-operate and participate in group activity, learning how to work with one's physical body, and taking advantage of an opportunity to achieve or to produce worth-while things. However,

the faculty agreed that these educational values had been given little or no consideration in the planning or carrying-out of the activities.

A PLANNED PROGRAM OF INFORMAL WORK EXPERIENCES

Six years ago the administration and faculty of Appalachian High School embarked upon a planned program of informal work experience for all pupils. The first step was to reduce the number of activities. This was done so that emphasis could be placed on the educational values of those activities retained and time could be spent in planning, preparing for, carrying to completion, and evaluating results of the activities. Consideration was also given to the correlation of the regular class work with the work of each activity.

Activities of many types have been sponsored since the faculty came to realize that they were failing to capitalize on many educational opportunities of informal work experience. Although fewer in number each year than in the previous years, these activities are planned and carried out in an attempt to reap the greatest educational values for the pupil participants. In order to illustrate how the educational values of these activities were obtained, two of the activities sponsored by Appalachian High School will be explained.

The magazine sale was one in which every student could participate and, therefore, was a good means of providing informal work experience. The first step in the revision of the magazine-

sales campaign at Appalachian High School was the redefining of the educational values of this activity. The objective of money-raising was reduced in importance, and the educational values were given their proper place at the top. Although the objectives of the magazine-sales campaign, as of other informal work programs, will vary in individual schools, the objectives of Appalachian High School listed here are those which proved to be of value:

1. To give pupils an opportunity to develop the ability to meet and converse with others.
2. To give pupils the ability to develop certain skills of salesmanship.
3. To improve reading tastes and reading abilities of pupils by placing at least one good magazine in the home of each pupil.
4. To enliven the regular classroom work by giving pupils an opportunity to make use of mental and physical skills learned in the classroom.
5. To give pupils an opportunity to develop self-confidence.
6. To give pupils an opportunity to earn credit toward graduation by participating in a program of learning by doing.
7. To give pupils an opportunity to earn money for their own use and to make money for the school.

It was soon realized that much planning must be done and continual emphasis must be placed on these objectives if they were to be achieved. At Appalachian High School the following things are now done before and during the sales campaign. Commercial and mathematics classes study a unit on salesmanship. Social-studies classes spend time discussing how to

meet and get along with the public. Assembly programs are held in which speeches are made concerning salesmanship and the educational values of such experience. The various magazines to be sold are discussed and evaluated in the English classes. Here the pupils learn desirable and undesirable features of the various journals. Group-guidance bulletins based on the topic of salesmanship are prepared by the guidance director. Student officers in the home rooms are taught how to keep accurate account of the sales made by the members of the home room. The general business and mathematics classes discuss the financial phase of the sales program with respect to costs and profits. After the sales campaign is well under way, the group-guidance programs are used to allow the students to discuss their experiences while selling. These experiences are evaluated by class members and the teacher, and suggestions for improvement are given to the pupil salesmen.

Another important phase of the sales campaign is enlisting the co-operation of the parents. Parents and the general public will usually co-operate if they understand the purposes of the program and realize that they are not obligated to buy something for which they have no use. Articles explaining the educational values of the program are published in the school and local papers. In these articles the parents are informed that their primary responsibility is to give the pupil salesman a fair hearing. Then, unless the

pupil salesman convinces them that he is selling something they need and can afford, they are not obligated to buy. Parents are also reached through the parent-teachers' association, service clubs, and other civic organizations. Every effort is made to get the laymen to understand that the money-raising aspect of the sales campaign is a minor one and that their part in the program is to meet the pupil salesman on the same basis as they meet other salesmen, and allow the pupil to discuss his proposition with them.

During the time the sales campaign is on, every effort is made to correlate class work with the experiences the pupils are having. For example, in the English department, themes are written in connection with pupil experiences, and articles from the magazines being sold are read and discussed. At the close of the sales campaign, the success of this type of activity is discussed by the home-room groups, and individual pupils are given recognition for their part in the program. Credit in the form of honor points counting toward graduation is given to those pupils whose sales achievements are outstanding.

School administrators need not worry about a reduction in school income from their sales campaigns if they follow the program described here. In the five years since this type of program was started at Appalachian High School, the sales increased from \$225 to approximately \$900 a year. This is also evidence of the parents' willingness to co-operate in any

program that offers benefits to youth.

The second type of informal work experience to be discussed is the improvement of the school's physical plant through co-operative pupil efforts. An example of this type of informal work experience undertaken at Appalachian High School was the redecoration of a classroom by a group of home-room students. As in the magazine sale, the first step was the defining of the educational objectives that should be derived from such an activity. Again the main objective was the educational experience that the pupils would receive. The ultimate goal of the redecoration of the classroom now became merely a means of offering the pupils the opportunity to participate in these educational experiences.

The faculty set up the following as objectives of this informal work experience:

1. To give pupils an opportunity to learn how to work together on a group project.
2. To give pupils an opportunity to put into practice the skills they learn in home economics, shop, science, health, and other subjects.
3. To help in developing the proper attitude on the part of the student concerning the care and improvement of the school plant by giving the pupil a part in the process.
4. To offer a greater number of pupils an opportunity to excel and succeed in some phase of their school experiences.
5. To teach pupils the dignity of working with one's hands.
6. To show students the value of planning and preparation before undertaking a job.
7. To improve the physical and aesthetic conditions of the classrooms.

The attainment of these objectives necessitated the pupils' participation in many worth-while experiences. At Appalachian High School nearly 100 per cent of the home-room groups participated in the following activities in the process of redecorating their home rooms. They studied and planned the improvements they wanted to make. They studied and decided on the color scheme they wanted to use. They figured the cost of materials needed and, in some cases, raised the funds for these materials. They made the necessary purchases. Through group discussion and study, they planned the correction of such health factors as lighting and ventilation. Each of the home-room pupils worked on one of several committees, and each committee worked on a different phase of the project. Finally, they did actual labor with their hands, such as sanding and varnishing desks, filling plaster cracks, painting walls, making and hanging draperies, and hanging pictures.

These activities spread beyond the home room, and many of the individual students or committees found it necessary to go to other sources for additional information and assistance. In the health classes, for example, the pupils studied classroom health condi-

tions; in the home-economics laboratory, girls studied color schemes and made draperies; and both girls and boys found it necessary to learn from painters the methods of mixing and applying plaster and paint. One noticeable result of this activity is the increased pride that pupils take in the upkeep and care of the home rooms. The pupils feel that the room belongs to them, and they now take better care of their home room and also insist that other groups who use the room do likewise.

A CLOSING COMMENT

Many other types of informal work experience could be discussed, but the purpose of this paper is to emphasize the fact that school administrators must take advantage of the educational opportunities of the *informal* work experiences which are *already* a part of their school program. This can be done by redefining the objectives of the informal work experiences now found in our secondary schools. After these objectives have been couched in terms of pupil needs, then the actual work-experience program must be carried out through careful planning, organization, and evaluation.

A STUDY OF HIGH-SCHOOL STORES IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

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PAST STUDIES

IN THE heyday of the introduction of extra-curriculum activity programs into high schools, dozens of books and magazine articles were published on the subject. The majority of these appeared between 1920 and 1930. A few current magazine articles on this subject are still found. Among all this material, however, relatively little has been published concerning school stores. The small amount that has appeared is on the management of the funds received from, and paid toward, the support of the various extra-curriculum activities, some of which show annual financial profits and some, annual financial losses.

The problems involved in the successful organization and management of a high-school extra-curriculum program are complex and, frequently, difficult; yet it is generally believed that the values of these programs far outweigh the attendant difficulties. The reasons for the establishment of high-school stores may be included under at least one of four headings: services to the pupils, counteracting catchpenny neighborhood stores, special training for pupils, and profits

to be used for the extra-curriculum program.

THE PRESENT STUDY

Gathering the data.—The material for this paper was gathered from data on eleven high schools of a single school system in a city of approximately 400,000 people. The data were based on the three-year experience of the senior writer as sponsor of one of these school stores and on personal interviews with each of the other school-store sponsors. A check list was used as the basis of the interview. All the sponsors were known personally to the senior writer as a result of meetings to discuss mutual problems. Even then, not all the sponsors would, or could, give all the information desired. A certain amount of competition for having the most effective store in terms of overhead, turnover of goods, and per cent of profit as related to sales prices may well explain their unco-operative attitude, while the crowded daily schedules of the store sponsors and the school treasurers, which prevented the taking of frequent inventories and analyses of costs, sales, and profits, explain their

inability to give information. The writers are convinced, however, that the facts about the school stores, as far as they were given, are accurate.

Early organization and establishment.—Since each of the high-school stores or student exchanges in the city was organized because the school felt a need for its services, some of the school stores have been in existence for a long time, while others have only recently been established. The first store was established in 1910; the last, in 1946. The services which these stores render vary greatly but, in general, seem satisfactory to the personnel of the schools in which they are located.

In this school system, the school stores have definitely not been recognized as parts of the extra-curriculum programs, even though they have functioned in the interests of, and for the benefit of, the general student body. In one school only did the student council recognize the store as an official part of the program. In that school, the school manager, who served on the student council, was also a member of the store corps.

In general, the early organization of these school stores has been quite similar. A convenient space has been set aside for the store's operation, and a faculty sponsor has been chosen by the principal. The sponsor purchased, at wholesale, some stationery supplies and chose one or more pupil clerks to assist with sales. The school store then opened for business, usually before and after school and at the noon hour,

but sometimes only at the beginning of each semester. In at least two of these high schools the forerunner of the present school store was a book exchange which sold new books that had been bought or secondhand books on consignment (a commission on the sale retained) and which operated only at the beginning of each semester.

Present stock.—From these simple beginnings, some of the school stores have grown into profitable businesses. Stationery-supply inventories have been renewed and increased, and textbooks, locker and bicycle locks, candy, soft drinks, and many sundries have been added in most of the stores. Textbooks are handled on three bases: outright purchase and resale of new books, consignment sale of used books, and rental of new and used books. Most of the school stores carry supplies of pencils, pens, erasers, notebooks and covers, and a wide range of tablets and fillers. Some art and mathematics supplies are carried in nine of the stores, as well as combs, hairpins, lipsticks, shoelaces, needles, thread, compacts, and other sundries. As an extra service, five of the stores maintain free lost-and-found departments.

The store adviser has been expected to order the necessary supplies, supervise and assist with sales, check the money collected each day, and deposit the money or designate some pupil to take over this last responsibility. The adviser has also been expected to take, or to assist in the taking of, periodic inventories and to keep a check on current supplies in order to be able to

reorder when necessary and to know whether the store was making a reasonable profit at all times.

Physical equipment and layout.—All the high schools have made some provision for space for their school stores, but facilities are crowded in several of them. The poorest facilities are in one of the largest and best equipped of the schools. The store is near the front entrance, but it is small and must be artificially lighted whenever it is in use. Supplies, except enough for a day or two at a time, must be stored in the basement at some distance from the store. Customers must remain in the hall and are served through the upper half of a door. This means slow service, congestion in the hall, and the holding of occasional candy sales in the halls, with attendant confusion and crowding. There is not room in the store for a cash register or for a table and chair for bookkeeping and inventory work.

The best facilities for the school store are also in one of the largest and best equipped of the schools. A counter and unusually attractive display cases in the form of a U outline the space for customers. Adequate amounts of supplies are kept in the display cases, and reserve supplies are stored in hall lockers near at hand. This store has its own adding machine, telephone, and cash register, all purchased with the profits from the store. The atmosphere of the store is quiet, businesslike, and pleasant.

Comparing the stores.—Two of these eleven high schools have made no pro-

vision for a change fund, that is, a sum of money in small coins which is carried over from day to day and used for making change. The teachers in charge of the stores have to see that they have some small change of their own available. Four schools have found that twenty dollars is sufficient for a change fund; one keeps twenty-five dollars on hand; two keep thirty dollars; and two others keep forty and fifty dollars each at the first of a semester, but reduce this to twenty after the first rush. Since the insurance carried by the schools does not cover money left in the buildings at night, all advisers have to make their own arrangements for the care of the change funds outside of store hours.

Every one of these high schools defrays, in part, the expense of its extra-curriculum program by selling student-body cards. Three of the school stores sell student-body cards directly to the pupils, and five receive and check the money for the cards after it has been collected by home-room representatives or special salesmen. Two of the school stores have no connection with the sale of student-body cards. In one of the schools, the store sponsor, but not the school store, is responsible for the student-body-card collections. In three schools, student-body cards sell for fifty cents a semester; in five schools, for seventy-five cents; in two schools, a dollar; and in one school, for two dollars and a half a year. No provisions are made by the schools for assisting pupils who are unable to purchase student-body cards,

but some home rooms have occasionally assisted members of their own groups.

In two of these schools only are the school-store sponsors directly responsible for collecting funds derived from special drives, such as the Red Cross or Community Chest drives, or for special fees, including payments for lost or broken equipment belonging to the school. Six other stores and the adviser of one store, but not the store, receive and check the money collected for special drives or for fees on a banking basis after it has been assembled by the home-room representatives, by special salesmen, or by organized pupil service groups.

Six of the faculty sponsors of the school stores also have been treasurers of the student-body programs. In each of these schools, except one, all the money received from all student-body activities passes through the school stores and involves a system of receipt-giving for tickets and supplies issued, money turned in, and supplies and tickets returned. By means of this system of receipts, the money can be credited to the proper pupil organizations. Usually, all the money is deposited daily in one account in the nearest bank. In addition, records of withdrawals of funds and the balances of each organization must be kept up to date. In three of these schools, the school-store personnel is responsible for the sale of all tickets to all school activities for which admission is charged. Three of the school stores keep the books for, and deposit the

money for, the school cafeterias.

Since funds of extra-curriculum activities are collected by class, group, and club treasurers and by ticket-sellers at various times during the week, the banking hours should be frequent. No pupil or teacher, except the school treasurer or some other designated person, should be expected, or allowed, to be responsible for these funds—which are occasionally considerable—overnight or over a week end. Obviously, the school treasurer should have the use of the night-vault facilities of the bank of deposit to relieve the ticket-sellers at school dances, plays, musicales, and athletic contests of the money which they have in their charge.

Only one store sponsor stated that an inventory of store supplies has been taken twice a year. The others took complete inventories only once a year, although three of these took unofficial and cursory inventories from time to time. An alert and interested sponsor or pupil assistant would have at least a fair knowledge of the total supplies bought, on hand, and sold at all times. The promotion of understanding of good business methods and checks on honesty require that complete inventories be taken more frequently.

Three of the store sponsors, one of whom is responsible on a banking basis for all pupil money collected by the school, are not bonded. Eight are bonded in various amounts. All the schools carry insurance which, in case of theft, except of money left in the

building at night, protects sponsors and pupils who conduct any of the school's extra-curriculum financial business.

The number of pupils who work in each of the stores varies according to school custom rather than according to the amount of work to be done. The number varies from two to twenty, in part according to the number of hours a day the store is open, and in part according to tradition. The store clerks in some of the schools assist with the bookkeeping for all the extra-curriculum activities. In some of the schools, they are expected to collect the money for all activities and to sell tickets at all social, dramatic, and athletic activities of the school. In other schools, they work in the stores only. All clerks are chosen by the store sponsors, sometimes after consultation with other teachers. In no case is there a specific minimum set for the marks of the pupils who are selected, but, in practice, pupils with lower-than-average marks are rarely chosen.

In three of the high schools, no compensation is given to the clerks. In one of the schools, credit in the course in business practice is given "if the clerk is efficient." Three other schools provide activity points for this work, and five pay their clerks either in cafeteria credit or in cash at the rate of five to ten dollars a month. All sponsors report that the problem of pupil-clerk's taking school supplies for themselves or for their friends is negligible or of no difficulty.

With two exceptions, the pupils working in the school stores are not bonded. One of these exceptions is the high-school treasurer and bookkeeper for all extra-curriculum activities, including the school store. The other is the receiver of all daily cash receipts from all pupil activities.

Without exception, the school-store sponsors are chosen by the principals of the respective schools. The criteria used in making the selections were not ascertainable. None of the sponsors would admit having any special ability for performing their varied and detailed duties, but most of them have served for several years and expect to continue.

The amount of time allocated to the school-store sponsors for this work varies considerably among the schools. Three schools do not relieve the teacher of any class periods for sponsoring the school store, but one of these teachers is relieved of one class a day to serve as banker and bookkeeper for all the pupil activities of the school. In four schools, each store sponsor is relieved of one class a day. In two of these schools, the teachers are responsible for the store only, but in one the sponsor is expected not only to oversee the store (including banking) but to supervise all pupil bookkeepers for activities and to write all checks for these activities. Another sponsor conducts one class before the regular school day begins. In this way he meets five classes during the day, sponsors the store, checks all organization and activity bookkeepers, writes

the necessary checks, makes all deposits at the bank, and keeps the various accounts on rentals of books and locks. The four remaining schools allow the store sponsors two classes fewer than the regular teaching schedule, but the sponsors also keep the books for all activities and serve as bankers for the activity funds.

Three schools pay nothing extra to the persons who act as store sponsors and, in two cases, activity treasurers. Two schools pay the store sponsor \$100 a year for the work; one pays the same amount for sponsoring the store and supervising all activity books. One school pays the store sponsor \$135 a year; another pays \$200 a year. Three schools pay their store sponsors and activity treasurers \$170, \$250, and \$400, respectively. Thus, it can be seen that there is little relation between the amount of work done and the pay (including decreased teaching load) received.

Although no attempt was made to ascertain the purposes for which the profits from the various school stores and other extra-curriculum activities have been used, some outstanding instances were noted. In one school, approximately \$2,500 was spent for band instruments over a period of three years. The lighting of a football field was financed from the school's student-body funds, although the added profits from night games were expected to repay this loan within a reasonable time. Other schools have purchased radios, pianos, band and orchestra instruments, murals, stage

equipment, motion-picture projectors, other visual aids of various kinds for classroom use, as well as "carrying" some of the activities which are believed to be worthy but which are not self-sustaining.

Loosely supervised spending.—Worth while as the above projects may have been, the money spent for them was made available under loosely drawn rules. In fact, it would be possible for the budget committee of any of these schools and, in several schools, for the principal alone, to squander the profits from all the extra-curriculum activities for any purpose whatsoever. Under present regulations, there would be nothing legally wrong with the purchase of new office equipment for the principal or a spring-filled overstuffed chair for the janitor. Nevertheless, it is believed that the profits from these school stores and other pupil activities have been wisely and usefully spent.

While these schools, as far as known to the writers, have suffered no serious financial losses, the budget organization and the financial supervision are believed to be inadequate. Only an annual report of their finances is required by the school district. The principals of the schools receive, at most, a voluntary monthly report. Little publicity is given in any of the schools to the annual reports or the audit reports or to the budgets for extra-curriculum activities. In several schools, the pupils have no voice in the making of the budgets. It is believed that each school should out-

line a set of general principles for the handling and expenditure of all pupil funds, that all expenditures should be made in accordance with these general principles, and that the principles should be publicized within the schools.

CONCLUSIONS

1. It is generally agreed that the recording and handling of all pupil-activity funds should be centralized, although each activity or organization should also have its own accounting system.

2. A proper allocation of these funds is most desirable. Definite but flexible organizational and over-all budgets should be made. The interested pupils should have some share in making them. Periodical audits should be posted in a public place in each school.

3. School stores should give planned training in salesmanship skills and de-

velopment of effective personality traits.

4. The services which each school store is to provide should be definite and should be planned. Sufficient personnel to handle the services should be provided. The services should be similar among the schools of a school system but not necessarily identical.

5. Personnel handling extra-curriculum funds as a routine matter should be bonded. In these schools insurance against theft or destruction of pupil-activity funds and property should be carried.

6. Pupil clerks in school stores should receive some reward or compensation for their work. Money is less often desired than some form of activity points or a badge.

7. The store sponsors should be paid reasonably for their work as sponsors or as bankers and treasurers, either by decreased teaching loads or by additional salary payments.

A STUDENT POLL IN CONJUNCTION WITH A NATIONAL ELECTION

ALANSON C. HARPER

Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, Connecticut



EVERYONE is interested in the outcome of a national election for president and vice-president. Prior to an election, predictions are rife, and wagers are offered and taken. Straw votes and polls abound, purporting to be true forecasters of the result. A mock election among the students of a school is a natural capitalization on this widespread interest.

THE UNIT PROJECT

At Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, Connecticut, we anticipated the election of 1948 by preparing a unit to be used in the United States history classes during the three-week period prior to November 2. There were ten of these classes, and each was assigned a part in the program. With their four teachers they planned the activities suggested in the unit outline and carried them out at the appointed time. The entire project attracted the desired attention of the student body, and the "election" itself was carried out with remarkable smoothness and dispatch.

The following outline, which has been modified for publication, was dis-

tributed to all United States history students when the work was undertaken.

RESOURCE UNIT ON ELECTION OF 1948

I. Objectives.

- A. To conduct a mock election for the school in connection with the national presidential election, in order to increase understanding of how our elections are conducted.
- B. To promote interest in national civic affairs.

II. Preparation for realizing objectives.

- A. Make a study of:
 1. Candidates and issues.
 2. Electoral process.
 - a) Electoral college.
 - b) Local electoral activities—registration, balloting, and counting.
- B. Actual activities.
 1. Registration, preparing of voting lists, and checking.
 2. Preparing the ballot.
 - a) Candidates to be included.
 - b) Format.
 - c) "Printing."
 - d) Assignment of number of votes by states to represent proportional electoral-college distribution.
 - e) Distribution of ballots to polling places.

3. Preparing and dismantling the polling places.
4. Informing the school.
 - a) Announcements in school paper, on bulletin boards, and through posters.
 - b) Explanation of how and where to vote and of how to make the returns.
5. Manning the polling places with:
 - a) Officers and moderators.
 - b) Clerical workers.
 - c) Patrollers.
 - d) Watchers.
6. Counting and announcing the results.

III. Reading program.

- A. Books.
- B. Periodicals and papers.

TO THE PUPIL:

The work in this project is to be distributed by classes to the ten sections in United States history. These assignments are made on the basis of special skills, order of periods, etc.

Your teacher will try to explain to each class the entire procedure, so that you may understand it all and not just your own little job.

The following task has been assigned to your class. [Attached to each of these was a sheet outlining in more detail the phases of the project assigned to each class.]

It will be noted that the unit begins with a study of the 1948 election—its candidates and its issues. The daily press and school materials, such as the *American Observer* and the *Weekly News Review*, were used to provide stimulation and information. The pupils were encouraged to give as much attention as possible to political speeches on the radio.

COMMITTEES

Committee on Information.—Various committees were set up to carry out

the project. One of the classes was assigned to publicize the project. They did an excellent twofold job, flooding the school with campaign literature and instructing students on how to conduct an election. They were guided in their work by the outline which follows in modified form.

I. Publicity.

A. Preliminary announcement of:

1. Time, place, and arrangements.
2. Voting.
 - a) Presidential electors.
 - b) State officers.
 - c) Town representatives to state legislature.

B. Accompanying and following publicity.

1. Display of party materials and sample ballots.
2. Rallies sponsored.

C. Means of publicity.

1. Written announcements, visits to home rooms, bulletin boards, leaflets, public-address system, rallies.

II. Instructions.

A. Directions.

1. Place and time designated for voting for each home room.
2. Description of how to vote.

B. Cautions.

1. The American ballot is both secret and free.
2. Do not spoil your ballot by failing to follow the rules and directions.

III. Announcement of results.

- A. Chief press officer in charge receives envelopes from four moderators, totals them, announces result to school via afternoon notices, releases results to press.

As previously stated, the class in charge of publicity was guided by this outline, but they ventured to make changes and improvements. The class

members were particularly active in securing and displaying party materials. They visited all party headquarters in the area and collected posters, pictures, flyers, buttons, and stickers, as well as copies of party platforms, candidates' speeches, and a wide range of indorsements.

It was discovered that holding rallies in school was not feasible; that phase, therefore, was dropped. However, a public-address system, which proved to be the center of interest for the rest of the "campaign," was set up in the cafeteria. Pupils prepared short addresses in behalf of each party and each candidate. They delivered these over the "radio" during lunch periods. Between speeches "studio music" was played over the system for the entertainment of the student body.

Committee for Preparation of Ballots.—Meanwhile ballots and registration lists were being prepared. One class prepared the ballot. They sent to the secretary of state of Connecticut for the official state ballot. They adapted the ballot, so that, while it would include the most important officials and parties, it would not be so long that it would confuse the voters. The class then arranged to have a stencil cut and the necessary number of ballots mimeographed. Officials were appointed to be custodians of the ballots until "election day" and to deliver them to the polls at the proper time. A modified form of the outline used by this class follows.

- I. Determination of content.
 - A. Parties.
 - B. Candidates.

- II. Design and format.
- III. Preparation of stencil and running off ballot on mimeograph.
- IV. Stamping with state names.
 - A. Determination of electoral vote for each state.
 - B. Doubling the number of electoral vote for each state and stamping that number of ballots accordingly.
- V. Counting out ballots.
- VI. Protection of ballots.
- VII. Distribution by security officers and deputies to:
 - A. Moderators on election day before opening of polls.
 - B. Information Committee.

Committee for Preparation of Voting Lists.—The registration lists were prepared by another class. This was routine—a clerical task—but it was good practice in accuracy of copying and in taking responsibility for delivering true copies to the moderators of the polls at the proper time. A prominent part of the lesson for this class was learning how voters are "made" and how their names are entered on the voting lists. They also learned of the use given these voting lists on election day, when voters are checked off as they come to the polls to vote. An outline similar to the one included here guided the class.

- I. Preparation of voting lists.
 - A. Collecting names.
 1. Secure registers from home rooms.
 2. Copy lists by boys and girls—alphabetically.
 - B. Typing all lists in duplicate in proper form.
 - C. Checking for errors.
- II. Distribution by custodians or registrars.
 - A. Delivery to moderator before opening of polls.

Committee for Preparation of Polling Places.—The preparation of the polling places required considerable manpower on the day before "election day." Three classes, with an enrolment consisting predominantly of boys, were selected for this task. The gymnasium and the cafeteria had been decided on as polling places. Each was divided in half, and each half set up as a separate "district" or "precinct" for a class. Signs and furnishings were lined up, and floor plans of furniture arrangements were prepared. It happened that the three classes selected for this task met during the last two periods of the day, and the teacher selected for supervision of this phase was the teacher of two of the classes. On the day before the voting, guided by an outline similar to the one shown below, he used the moving and arrangement of the furniture as his "lesson" in United States history. By the end of the day all the arrangements were complete.

- I. Designation of polling places.
 - A. Gymnasium (divided) and cafeteria (divided).
 - B. Assignment to polls by classes.
- II. Design and layout of:
 - A. Polls themselves.
 - B. Traffic into, through, and from polls.
- III. Procurement of materials.
 - A. Furniture.
 - B. Materials used for voting, directions, and certification.
- IV. Setting-up of polls.
- V. Dismantling of polls.

After the election had been completed, these same classes returned the furniture, tables and chairs, to the places where they belonged.

THE VOTING

"Election day" came, and the school was abuzz with suppressed excitement. Students who were to run the polls were going about their unaccustomed tasks with a quiet and confident efficiency, not sure of all the answers, but familiar enough with their chief duties because they had received good instructions.

This phase of the project had been outlined in considerable detail since it was most important that it proceed without unnecessary incidents. Four sections were available for this manning job, and one section was assigned to each "precinct." Each section appointed the necessary officials and assigned its members to perform all the essential tasks, such as checking, acting as policemen, and handing out and receiving ballots. The moderator was in charge, and he and his deputy answered all questions and solved all problems, turning to the teachers only occasionally for help.

Each proceeded to their assigned polling place one room at a time. The moderator of each precinct sent a runner to the rooms, as the polls were ready, to notify them to come to vote. After the ballots were cast, the voters returned to their rooms. Meanwhile the next room had been called. Thus, a steady flow of voters passed the checkers' tables, picked up their ballots, went to empty "booths," marked their ballots, placed them in a box, and completed the process of voting.

The fact that the class on publicity had sent pupils to each room prior to

the election to instruct the students carefully in the details contributed to the smooth carrying-out of this step. Since nearly everyone knew just what to do, it was apparent that the instructions had been well presented.

Committee for Operation of Polls.—

The following outline presents the work of the Committee for Operation of Polls.

I. Selection of officials and workers.

- A. One United States history section to take charge of each polling place, with identical manning arrangements for each poll.
- B. Democratic election of moderator and deputy for each poll.
- C. Appointment of other officials and workers by moderator.

II. Personnel needed.

- A. Moderator.
- B. Deputy moderator.
- C. Clerks.
- D. Patrolmen.
- E. Watchers.
- F. Runners.

III. Procedure.

- A. Opening of polls.
- B. Voting.
- C. Closing of polls.
- D. Counting the ballots.
- E. Announcement of results.
 1. Complete official tally placed in envelope.
 2. Envelope sent to designated official.

Counting the votes took the rest of the day, and all sections shared in this work. This plan was not the original one, but the task proved to be far too great for the few classes that were first assigned to it. The results were not known until after school closed and

the final tabulation and totaling had been done by the teacher committee. The results were then announced to the press. The school was informed of the results by bulletin the next day.

EVALUATION

It is not easy to evaluate the outcomes of a project like this. Four tangible outcomes are apparent, however: first, a vote was taken, and results were obtained; second, a considerable amount of keen interest was engendered during the "campaign"; third, through the press, the public was informed of something that the school was doing to teach citizenship; and fourth, the movement of one thousand students through a novel procedure was accomplished, using student leaders to direct their schoolmates, with a minimum of confusion and with no loss of time.

It is difficult to say whether the interest which was generated by the school's preparatory campaign and planning for the election was more or less than it would have been if it had not been focused on this activity. Certainly the activity lent an air of reality to the teaching of public affairs. It was the testimony of the participating teachers that class interest, both in the national election and in the project, was uniformly high.

Our names and pictures appeared in the paper. We are not avid publicity seekers, but, in a day when the modern American secondary schools are under fire for not teaching anything, a tangible piece of evidence

that some concrete learning activity is taking place is valuable ammunition—especially at budget time. The appearance of pupil's pictures in the paper also creates good will for the school, and a local paper published a picture of the pupils casting their ballots.

Those persons who charge that pupils cannot learn self-direction or the ability to direct others should have seen the actual voting. While it is true that teachers were scattered around, the atmosphere was informal, and the teachers were distinctly in the background. Teachers had trained the student leaders and workers, and these students carried out their tasks without minute supervision. It took about forty-five minutes for the school to vote, while the most time that any one person spent away from his studying was ten minutes, except, of course, the pupils who were manning the polls, who gave up the entire period. The principal allowed an activity

period for the voting, and we accomplished the task within the allotted time.

Finally, a word about who "won" is in order. As a forecast of national voting the poll was incorrect. The town of Fairfield is a Republican community, and the fact that Dewey received 52 per cent of the votes did not surprise anyone, though some persons remarked that it seemed rather small compared to the anticipated Dewey landslide. Truman received 40 per cent of the student votes; Wallace, 6 per cent; and Norman Thomas, 2 per cent. A few days later the town gave Dewey 63.7 per cent; Truman, 34.7 per cent; Wallace, about 1.5 per cent; and Norman Thomas, a scattering of votes. Is there any validity in the assertion that the younger voters favored the President whose party had been in power during the span of their conscious lifetime? It makes an interesting speculation.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GORDON N. MACKENZIE AND CLIFFORD BEBELL
Teachers College, Columbia University

*

REFERENCES for the period July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949, reflect a strong interest in faculty personnel and human-relations problems. Democracy in administration and a defining of the changing role of the principal continue as popular topics.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

597. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. "What Are Good Techniques in Achieving Democratic Administration of the High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 206-15.

Discusses feasibility of democratic administration, limitations on teachers' participation, the role of the principal, and the organization of the faculty.

598. LANGERMAN, ROLLAND J. "Cooperative Administration for Better Teaching," *Clearing House*, XXIII (March, 1949), 426-27.

Presents a discussion of the way co-operative administration was carried out in one school with regard to curriculum study and administrative committees, including a salary committee.

599. MEIER, ARNOLD; DAVIS, ALICE; and CLEARY, FLORENCE. "The New Look in School Administration," *Educational Leadership*, VI (February, 1949), 302-9.

The steps involved in developing democratic administration are considered under

the topics: obstacles and reactions, organization of the faculty, initiation of ideas, effective communication, principles of participation, and role of the principal.

600. NYLEN, DONALD, and BRADFORD, LELAND P. "We Can Work Together," *NEA Journal*, XXXVII (October, 1948), 436-38.

Presents principles and proposals for the development of a group approach to administration, involving administrators, supervisors, and teachers.

601. PITTENGER, B. F. "Two Interpretations of Democratic School Administration," *American School Board Journal*, CXVI (May, 1948), 17-19; (June, 1948), 17-18.

This two-part article attempts to determine the lines of thinking about democratic administration. Discusses the topic from the standpoint of efficiency and of inherent right.

602. RELLER, THEODORE L. "The Reconciliation of Democracy and Efficiency in Educational Administration," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXV (March, 1949), 165-74.

Considers the true meanings of democracy and efficiency and shows that it is fallacious to believe that the latter can exist without the former.

603. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH E. "What Are Good Techniques in Achieving Democratic Administration of the High School?" *Bulletin of the National As-*

sociation of Secondary-School Principals, XXXIII (April, 1949), 215-22.

Presents information received from forty-three schools with regard to the meaning of democratic administration and of sharing responsibility. Gives a number of techniques used by the various schools.

604. WEY, HERBERT. "Teacher-Pupil Committees Share in Administration," *Clearing House*, XXIII (February, 1949), 336-39.

Describes the system in use at Appalachian High School, Boone, North Carolina, and the steps by which it was developed.

THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

605. GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. "How Can We Meet the Administrative Problems of the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (May, 1949), 173-78.

Considers such questions as: special services of state departments, co-ordinated local supervisory services, cadet principalships, preservice training, and local organizational leadership.

606. LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. "How Can We Meet the Administrative Problems of the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (May, 1949), 178-84.

Describes various situations and proposes ways of using democratic school administration, of broadening and enriching the curriculum, and of utilizing educational organizations to improve education in small high schools.

SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

607. WORTHINGTON, J. E. "How Should the Administrative Issues of the Six-Year School Be Resolved?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 200-205.

Describes the junior-senior high school in Waukesha, Wisconsin; the advantages of the six-year plan; and ways of solving issues arising from age differences, teacher assignments, recruitment, curriculums, plant utilization, schedules, guidance, and other problems.

RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS OF ADMINISTRATION

608. BAWDEN, RICHARD EARL, and LUDWIG, FREDERICK J. "Positive Function of School Administration," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIII (October, 1948), 372-73.

Discusses the character, development, methods, and goals of the school administrator, both as teacher and administrator.

609. BOZARTH, VIRGIL. "Obtaining and Maintaining Good Teacher Morale," *American School Board Journal*, CXVII (July, 1948), 25-26.

Furnishes a number of specific policies which are useful to a high-school principal for co-operative administration, for planning smooth functioning, and for good human relations.

610. BROOM, PERRY M. "What Should the High School Teacher Expect from Her Principal?" *Secondary Education*, XIV (November, 1948-January, 1949), 4-6.

Considers some of the principal's qualities that are helpful to the teacher, for example, co-operative support, professional stimulation, and smooth administrative operation.

611. CARY, MILES E. "Initiating Creative Curriculum Development," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIII (April, 1949), 345-46.

Describes experiences at McKinley High School, Honolulu, in building a curriculum co-operatively, using the technique of conferences and committees.

612. COLEBANK, GEORGE H. "The Changing High-School Principal," *Clearing*

House, XXIII (February, 1949), 323-26.

Gives the record of a day's activities for two principals, fifteen years apart, to make the point that today's principal should be instruction-minded, the master-teacher.

613. GORMAN, BURTON W. "Some Characteristics of a Successful High School Principal," *American School Board Journal*, CXVIII (June, 1949), 28.

Considers the principal's need for experience, approachability, knowledge of teaching, thoroughness, familiarity with sources of help, and vision.

614. JENSEN, LISBETH S. "I Remember 8 Principals," *Clearing House*, XXIII (September, 1948), 34-37.

Relates the author's experiences with principals and concludes that most lacked courage and were unable to win confidence.

615. KECK, MALCOLM B. "Brother—It Isn't Easy!" *Clearing House*, XXIII (September, 1948), 38-39.

An informal article listing a number of situations in which a principal is wrong whatever he does.

616. MISNER, PAUL J. "Creative Leadership for Modern Youth," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIII (April, 1949), 347-49.

Considers the strategic leadership position occupied by the high-school principal today and suggests the need for positive action toward guiding young people, improving the curriculum, and professionalizing teaching.

617. PATTON, JOHN L., JR. "The Principal's Responsibility for the Professional Growth of His Faculty," *Education*, LXIX (March, 1949), 453-57.

A homely article which lists seventeen ways in which a principal can act in order to help teachers grow professionally.

618. RELLER, THEODORE L. "Don't Neglect the Informal Organization of Your

Schools," *American School Board Journal*, CXVIII (April, 1949), 23-25.

Attempts to show that the informal organization is of great potential worth and can be of value to an administrator in maintaining morale and performing vital services.

619. ROMINE, STEPHEN. "The School Administrator and the Secondary-School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (November, 1948), 25-28.

Discusses the kind of leadership needed for curriculum development and specific ways of furnishing it.

620. SANDS, ELIZABETH. "How May Professional Leadership Be Obtained for the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 165-81.

Discusses the function of the junior high school and considers the responsibilities of the principal in public relations and curriculum, as well as the qualities required of him.

621. SHATTER, AUBREY. "So You Want To Be a High School Principal?" *Clearing House*, XXIII (March, 1949), 412-13.

A short, informal article which emphasizes the need for co-operativeness rather than excessive drive in a principal.

622. STONER, ALBERT F. "Are You Helping Teachers Grow?" *Kentucky School Journal*, XXVII (December, 1948), 26-29.

Suggests a check list for school administrators to help them work with teachers on objectives, orientation, professional growth, faculty meetings, recreation, discipline, and supervision. Applicable at both elementary- and secondary-school levels.

623. "The Work of the Principal," *School Executive*, LXVIII (February, 1949), 56-63.

Presents a summary of the activities of the principal, as a professional leader, as an executive, and as a community leader. The discussion is in general terms but is applicable to the secondary school.

FACULTY RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS

624. COHLER, MILTON J. "The Faculty Helps Select the Assistant Principal," *American School Board Journal*, CXVIII (February, 1949), 33-34.

Gives the details of the process through which a faculty co-operated in this aspect of administration, including a scale that was developed for judging an assistant principal.

625. KAMMERER, C. W. "Head of Dept.," *Clearing House*, XXIII (September, 1948), 5-8.

Gives an extensive list of the activities and responsibilities of department heads, as determined by sending a questionnaire to 112 department heads in Detroit.

626. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Junior-College Teachers' Co-operations," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (March, 1949), 399-411.

Reports a study made in forty-eight local public junior colleges to discover the types of activities expected of teachers of a non-instructional nature, their relation to subject matter, the time spent on them, and the implications for teacher preparation.

627. MINSTER, MAUD. "Librarians: Let's Raise Them to the Rank of Teacher," *Clearing House*, XXIII (December, 1948), 208-11.

Cites examples showing that librarians do not get equal status with other teachers with equal training and maintains that librarians do much teaching and should receive full recognition.

628. PARKES, GEORGE H. "The Department Chairman and His Job," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXVIII (May, 1949), 181-84.

Makes a job analysis of the work of a department head and describes his activities under a large number of headings.

629. ROMINE, STEPHEN. "Estimating the Time Required for Out-of-Class Teaching Preparation," *American School Board Journal*, CXVII (November, 1948), 25-26.

Presents estimates obtained from 1,578 high-school teachers on the time spent on out-of-class work and gives a formula for estimating this time.

STAFF MEETINGS

630. COOK, K. A., and FULL, HAROLD. "Is the School Faculty Meeting Significant in Promoting Professional Growth?" *School Review*, LVI (November, 1948), 519-24.

Describes study made in West Virginia to determine the significance in terms of five standards for faculty meetings and concludes that such meetings have not achieved the success they might.

631. HARRIS, DAVID. "Vital Professional Meetings Can Offer Much to Teachers," *School Management*, XVIII (October, 1948), 43.

Describes meetings held at Saybrook School, Hillside, New Jersey, and lists effective practices which, although general in nature, are appropriate to the high school.

PUPIL PERSONNEL¹

632. DAVIS, GRACE M. "Do You Section?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (January, 1949), 108-12.

A description and educational justification of ability grouping as developed at Modesto High School, Modesto, California.

633. GRAGG, WILLIAM LEE. "Some Factors Which Distinguish Dropouts from

¹ See also Item 502 (Johnson and Legg) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1949, number of the *School Review*.

High School Graduates," *Occupations*, XXVII (April, 1949), 457-59.

Summarizes a study made in two communities to determine factors distinguishing graduates from dropouts and lists factors found to be significant or nonsignificant.

634. MANDEL, JAMES. "The Validity of the Teacher Selection Method for the Segregation of Slow Students," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXX (September, 1948), 76-78.

Reports a study on the selection of students for slow biology classes at De Witt Clinton High School, New York City, on a basis of teachers' estimates, showing that their estimates are only 80 per cent accurate.

635. MILLER, VAN. "Dominic Takes a Hand with Discipline," *Clearing House*, XXIII (December, 1948), 237-39.

Describes how students successfully undertook to improve discipline in a high school through conference methods and later failed when they began imposing penalties.

636. SPRAGUE, ROBERT O. "Solving Junior High School Attendance Problems," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIII (October, 1948), 374-75.

Presents a procedure developed co-operatively at Southwest Junior High School, San Diego County, California, to encourage growth in pupil responsibility with regard to attendance.

637. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. *Class Size: The Larger High School*. United States Office of Education Circular No. 305, 1949. Pp. vi+30.

Reports a questionnaire study made of 1,260 high schools of 1,000 or more pupil enrolment, with extensive analysis of the data in terms of class-size distribution and frequency.

EVALUATION, RECORDS, AND REPORTS

638. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. "Reports by Departments," *Clearing House*, XXIII (September, 1948), 27-29.

Describes the reporting system in use at Iowa State Teachers College High School, in which a separate report form is used for each department.

639. CAPEHART, BERTIS E., and GORE, LILLIAN L. "Cumulative Guidance Records," *School Executive*, LXVIII (November, 1948), 54-57.

Tells how the schools of Oak Ridge, Tennessee, co-operatively developed cumulative forms for recording students' growth. Describes the features of this record and gives the outcomes of the study.

640. DODES, IRVING ALLEN. "The Stuyvesant Tenth-Year Promotion Plan," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXI (February, 1949), 27-34.

Reports a study made in Stuyvesant High School on a plan to promote groups in blocks automatically at the middle of the tenth year. Finds that the method is valuable for all subject-matter sequences and that it results in considerable psychological gain.

641. JOHNSTON, LEMUEL R. "Do Our Marking and Promotion Policies and Practices Need Re-evaluation?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 305-6.

Considers many of the ills associated with marks. Describes the experiment at the College High School at Greeley, Colorado, which shows that changing marking practices is a complex procedure and concludes that a five-point scale seems most reasonable at present.

642. KING, JOSEPH E., JR. "Using Tests in the Modern Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (December, 1948), 5-92.

Presents an extended discussion of the reasons for testing, kinds of tests available, how to test, and how to interpret and use test results.

643. MANSPERGER, MARTIN M. "What Devices for Recognizing and Encouraging Student Achievement?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (May, 1949), 139-45.

Discusses ten techniques, including certificates, exhibits, trips, conferences, exchange assemblies, class projects, scholastic requirements for activities, press recognition, recognition day, and honor societies.

644. NORMAN, R. B. "What Devices for Recognizing and Encouraging Student Achievement?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (May, 1949), 134-39.

Discusses kinds of recognition for scholastic, athletic, social, activity, and service achievement and describes plan used in the high school at Amarillo, Texas.

645. PANZER, JOSEPH J. "The Cumulative Record—A Tool of Good Administration," *Catholic Educational Review*, XLVII (May, 1949), 315-18.

States the need for adequate cumulative records, both for the purpose of guidance and for furnishing information. Discusses ways of increasing their use.

646. ROEBER, EDWARD C. "A Meaningful Record of Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Autumn, 1948), 397-400.

Gives a list of pertinent data which should constitute a permanent record of a test in order that the information may be as usable as possible.

647. VARNER, GLEN F. "Do Our Marking and Promotion Policies and Practices Need Re-evaluation?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 300-305.

Maintains that heavy dropouts are mainly due to our present marking system, that elimination can be controlled, and that a positive program for retaining students should be developed.

FINANCING ACTIVITIES

648. FUNK, MARK. "We Are in the Entertainment Business," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXX (March, 1949), 286-88.

Raises the issue whether the high-school athletic program is becoming professionalized and whether the taxpayer's money is being spent legitimately for this purpose.

649. HANSON, JOHN W. "Students Tackle Hidden Tuition: Practice of Group Work," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXV (February, 1949), 89-100.

Describes how students at University of Illinois High School attacked the problem of irregular student expenses and how they resolved it. Includes many of the problems and learnings connected with group work.

650. STOUT, MINARD W. "The Sources of Revenue for Extra-Class Activities," *School Review*, LVI (September, 1948), 410-14.

Reports a study made in 543 Iowa high schools to determine sources of income for activity programs, questions the advisability of some of the methods, and concludes that such procedures should be evaluated in terms of appropriate criteria, of which an example is given.

651. STOUT, MINARD W. "What Is Effective Administration of Pupil Activity Finances?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 292-300.

Lists the various considerations in building a budget for activity funds: the need for a budget, its function, the kind of plan to use, and steps in building it.

652. THOMPSON, G. BAKER. "What Is Effective Administration of Pupil Activity Finances?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (April, 1949), 287-92.

Discusses the legality of school-activity financing, with special reference to Pennsylvania. Describes proposed legislation to

improve the situation and lists suggestions for raising, spending, and protecting funds.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

653. CHAMBERLIN, RALPH G. "What Is a Good Program of Public Relations in the Secondary School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (May, 1949), 201-7.

Describes practices at the Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, involving various techniques, such as direct contacts with parents, school-community planning conference, behavior problems, family conferences on testing program, and others.

654. OLDS, ROBERT. "Untapped Resources in School Public Relations," *Ohio Schools*, XXVI (October, 1948), 298-99, 336-37.

Presents a discussion of ways in which teachers can use business principles in improving the relations between the school and community.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

655. BOGUE, JESSE P. (editor). *American Junior Colleges*, pp. 28-98. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (second edition).

Lists the policies and practices of the regional and state accrediting agencies with regard to the junior colleges.

656. BOGUE, JESSE P. "From the Executive Secretary's Desk: Junior-College Standards," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (December, 1948), 221-23.

Lists the standards developed by the Oklahoma State Junior College Committee.

657. FOWLER, BURTON P. "Problems and Procedures of Admission to College," *Redirecting Education*, pp. 234-43. Thirty-fifth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, College of Education,

University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1948.

Discusses this problem from the point of view of a secondary-school administrator. Attacks the piecemeal way in which graduates are measured and the difficulties caused by indications of choice of college by students.

658. "The GED Test and College Entrance Requirements," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (October, 1948), 42-44.

Summarizes the practices of sixty-eight institutions of higher learning with regard to their acceptance of the General Educational Development tests as fulfilling all or part of their entrance requirements.

659. HESS, WALTER E. "How Veterans and Nonveterans May Obtain High School Certification," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (October, 1948), 23-41.

Lists the practices of the various states and extraterritorial possessions with regard to using the General Educational Development test as a complete or partial requirement for high-school certification.

660. PAFFORD, W. E. "South Plans Flexible Accrediting Standards for Two Reasons," *Nation's Schools*, XLIII (February, 1949), 50.

Reports on progress of Southern Association project for the rewriting of standards and gives eight guiding principles to be used in evaluating schools.

661. WILSON, THEODORE HALBERT. "Accreditation of Junior Colleges," *American Junior Colleges*, pp. 23-27. Edited by Jesse P. Bogue. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (second edition).

Surveys the accreditation of junior colleges with regard to purposes, agencies, and extent.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

PAUL W. TAPPAN, *Juvenile Delinquency*.
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.,
1949. Pp. x+614. \$5.00.

Tappan's purpose in presenting his new volume, *Juvenile Delinquency*, is to bring together "the relevant materials on the juvenile and the adolescent in relation to causation, court processing, and treatment" (p. vii) and, thereby, "to make available to students of sociology and social work, to lawyers and laymen, an up-to-date and comprehensive analysis of the major developments and problems in dealing with the juvenile delinquent and the adolescent offender" (p. vii).

The material is organized and presented in four parts. Part I considers briefly the nature and extent of delinquency; Part II is concerned with causative factors; Part III, with the legal and sociological aspects of the courts that deal with the juvenile offender; and Part IV surveys varied methods of treatment that have been applied to the delinquent. The distinctive contribution of this volume will be found in its legal slant, particularly as developed in the third major division.

The author considers the nature of delinquency from two points of view: the judicial or legal, and the case-study concept. After indicating the many difficulties inherent in any attempt to define delinquent behavior, the author proffers the following:

The juvenile delinquent is a person who has been adjudicated as such by a court of proper jurisdiction though he may be no different, up until the time of court contact and adjudication at any rate, from masses of children who are not delinquent. Delinquency is an act, course of conduct, or situation which might be brought

before a court and adjudicated whether in fact it comes to be treated there or by some other resource or indeed remains untreated [p. 30].

In the words of the author himself, "one emerges from a consideration of the elements entering into delinquency with an indefinite and unsatisfying conclusion" (p. 30), since it does not describe the conduct or act that does, or might, bring children before the courts. This narrowly conceived legalistic definition overlooks the social and psychological aspects of behavior frequently defined as delinquent, meaning "anti-our" (dominant society) concept of what is acceptable behavior. The reader will find the definitive aspect of this volume a marked contrast to the more adequate description of the delinquent presented by Plant.¹

From an eclectic point of view a resurvey of much of the now familiar research of the 1920-30's is presented with the conclusion that too little is known as yet concerning specific elements in causal dynamics as they relate to individual delinquents. The author offers no new data on causation but presents in an authoritative, highly critical, and pessimistic manner a review of research, with a lengthy comment on the inadequacies of the scientific methods utilized in most of the recent research on delinquent behavior. Yet in a following section he diagnoses, from a three-paragraph newspaper clipping of an account of a love-sick young man who set

¹ James S. Plant, "Who Is Delinquent?" *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, pp. 14-29. Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1948.

fires after bidding his girl good night, that there was a "compulsive character" to the illegal act, that the arsonist was "neurotic," and that there was evidence of a "distorted psychosexual history." As the author himself illustrates, the limitations and inadequacies in the field of causative research are multiple. More stress should have been placed on the research of the last decade, as seen particularly in the controlled and contrasting studies of the significance of the differences between delinquent and nondelinquent youth, for example, in the research of Maud Merrill; the Cabot study in Cambridge-Somerville, Massachusetts, directed by Edwin Powers; and in the current research of the Gluecks.

The outstanding contribution of this volume lies in the author's discussion of the socio-legal phase of the juvenile court. The reader may not always agree with the author's restricted concept of the job of the juvenile court and his extreme reticence to include within the jurisdiction of the court a social-case-work phase of predelinquent hearings, but the author states:

Prehearing investigation is unsound both sociologically and legally, as the author has shown for the following reasons: (1) The social and psychological sciences have not yet attained a level of diagnostic skill where it is possible, even under optimum circumstances of investigation, to determine from "underlying problems" in the individual's history either the fact of present delinquency or the danger of future serious misconduct. (2) A court is not the proper place for the performance of a general child-welfare work either upon all children or upon that particular small minority that may come to be exposed to court contact rather than to a more apt resource; it is designed rather for cases where authority must be used because of particular and dangerous misconduct or neglect. (3) The facilities of the court are very far from adequate for such social and psychological investigations as might lead even to reasonably sound inferences as to the child's past sociogenic and psychogenic history, let alone his present or future delinquency. Probation officers generally are not behavior experts, nor

are they usually professional case workers, though they may employ quite properly some case-work methods. Specialists in the field of case work would hesitate, upon discovering a few general problem traits in the background of a case, to draw conclusions from them that the child should be exposed to authoritarian adjudication in order to remedy his potential delinquency or that he needed the "help" of a court. (4) The "evidence" that is procured by the officer and provided to the court must perforce reflect the haste and lack of trained skill that characterizes prehearing investigation; it is compounded often of the gossip, slander, opinion, and prejudice of parties in interest who may desire for all sorts of reasons to have the child found delinquent and, perhaps, put away [pp. 213-14].

Much of this opinion is contrary to present-day trends and existing practices.

The remainder, or almost half the volume, is devoted to a brief and, in some instances, superficial survey of most of the preventive and causative efforts that have been attempted to control the delinquency problem. Among the institutions dealt with in this section are the following: probation, social work, detention, family, school, church, commitment institutions, police, and recreation. The treatment is historical and descriptive and always hypercritical or pessimistic. The general conclusion that the author arrives at is that most, if not all, techniques have been quite ineffectual in combating delinquency.

Thirteen pages are devoted to the schools and their responsibilities in the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. In the author's critical appraisal, they do not fare any better than some of the other agencies. He states "the school has been shown to be incompetent in personnel, equipment, and leadership for even its most pressing task of formally inculcating knowledge and of passing on the cultural heritage" (p. 500). The usual, general remedies are suggested, including "more numerous, better paid, and more carefully trained and selected teachers with fewer duties irrelevant to the educational process" (p. 501). Also, trained personnel for

specialized jobs, better mental-hygiene conditions, more psychiatric clinics, special provisions for the deviant and unadjusted are needed. However, the author does not venture into the details of how these ought to be procured, set up, and implemented.

Neither the writing style nor the makeup of the book facilitates reading. The quotations and the cases are presented in small type that will weary even the reader who still boasts of 20/20 vision. The illustrations that show exteriors and interiors of jails and other institutions add little to the volume. Throughout the work, the author makes frequent and constant use of newspaper quotations, mainly from the columns of the *New York Times* and occasionally from *PM*. No less than fifty citations from the *New York Times* alone are found in the pages of this book. Altogether too frequently the newspaper is used as a bona fide primary source, which will bother those persons who agree with the author as to the need for improved research in the field of delinquency causation. The Appendixes offer court cases, statutes, and case records, together with an extensive bibliography, which is classified by parts and chapters.

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HARVEY A. PETERSON, STANLEY S. MARZOLF, and NANCY BAYLEY, *Educational Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. xiv + 550. \$4.00.

Observation of modern schools in action reveals to the trained and experienced observer not only educational philosophy basic to what goes on in a particular school. In addition to fundamental viewpoints reflected in schools, the observer can readily detect the means employed to attain objectives. This is the area of educational psychology. This branch of psychology is concerned with learning and with conditions and situations that make learning possible. Although learn-

ing as a process is the central theme, it is important even for professional workers to remember that knowing human beings as individuals is prerequisite to the effective functioning of educational psychology.

Educational Psychology, by Peterson, Marzolf, and Bayley, presents the many phases of this subject from the viewpoint that education in *co-operative* effort might well receive greater emphasis than education in *competitive* effort; that life needs, interests, and problems are to be the background for the teaching of subjects. It may be said that this book deals with educational psychology as a study of the learning process reflected in human beings within their setting in a democratic society.

The organization of the material is consistent with the view of the authors that learning should be made real and practical. Among the eighteen chapters the sequence is psychological rather than logical. After a brief definition of the field of educational psychology, the authors make a direct landing into the subject by discussing youth in its social environment. Following this contact of a current life problem, they proceed to treat the various phases of development and their relation to learning. Refreshingly different is the fact that heredity and environment, one of the "logical" first topics, are treated in the second-last chapter. By this time the student is probably sufficiently fortified to wrangle with the controversial problem: "Did we come that way, or did we get that way?"

In addition to organization as a high spot of the book, another outstanding feature is the chapter on "Case Studies in Teaching and Learning." The seeker after practical and concrete material will discover it in this chapter. A busy teacher might find this chapter worth the price of the book.

Every chapter closes with a summary, several questions or exercises, a good list of recommended readings, and sometimes a list of films dealing with the topic of the chapter. The four-page index gives adequate cross-

covering of the numerous items mentioned or described in the text.

Throughout the book it is apparent that undergraduate students have been kept in mind. This aim has been fulfilled to the extent that the book could serve as a good basic textbook in college classes. Experience with teachers suggests another possible use. In-service education courses or directed-observation or demonstration-teaching workshops might well include the book as a reference for teachers who wish to implement workshop observations and experiences with good basic reading on educational psychology.

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EGBERT W. NIEMAN and GEORGE E. SALT,
Living Literature: *Pleasure in Literature*.
New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1949.
Pp. xiv+654. \$2.92.

LUELLA B. COOK, WALTER LOBAN, OSCAR
JAMES CAMPBELL, and RUTH M. STAUF-
FER. Living Literature: *The World through
Literature*. New York: Harcourt, Brace &
Co., 1949. Pp. xii+754. \$3.28.

To keep the high-school boy or girl interested in worth-while material is the concern of the conscientious teacher. That the compilers of the two remaining anthologies of the Living Literature Series—those for Grades X and XI having been reviewed previously¹—have been affected by the same purpose, one would gather from the material contained in the textbooks for English pupils in Grades IX and XII, *Pleasure in Literature* and *The World through Literature*.

Realizing that during Grade IX the changes going on in the ordinary high-school youth are extensive, the authors of *Pleasure in Literature* seek to influence their wise determination by:

¹ *School Review*, LVI (December, 1948), 622-23.

1. Including only those selections which they think will appeal primarily to the living experience of youth rather than those from authors commonly considered highlights in literary circles.

2. Providing incentives for further reading of material which they consider of a similar nature, as well as material of a higher type, through discriminatory questions at the end of each unit intended to summarize what the pupil has already read and to suggest further reading.

3. Introducing three "interchapters," designated "Books into Movies," "News about Books," and "Reading Magazines and Newspapers," for the purpose of interesting youth in more intelligent out-of-school reading.

4. Providing a program of word study and vocabulary-building, not only to interest pupils in the advantages of a good vocabulary, but, through a study of context and word parts, to aid them in determining special meanings.

5. Including significant illustrations, harmony in the arrangement of units, the material preliminary to, and at the end of, each unit dominated by one purpose—the interest of the pupil.

In *The World through Literature*, the authors seek to give twelfth-grade pupils a representation of literary figures and, more important, to provide a wider view of the life and the characteristics of the people treated. This is true not only for the British Isles, but, mindful of the increased necessity for the United States to get along in world affairs, more particularly for such cultural areas as the East, the Scandinavian countries, Latin America, and Europe. The authors seem aware of the difficulties involved in giving the reader an insight into the age-old aspirations of a foreign people and seek to do this through the following means:

1. Each of the five cultural areas is introduced. Rather than presenting an elaborate historical survey the authors attempt to emphasize the forces influencing the people of these areas, in order to create a better under-

standing of the selections by the uninitiated reader.

2. The selections included are not too arduous. In some instances, in order to further the prime purpose of good understanding, selections by American authors, for example, Pearl Buck, are included among the writers of other cultural areas.

3. The method of treating British literature is worthy of note. Approximately half the contents of the book is concerned with the literature of Great Britain. Modern English writers are included in the section on the British Isles, and "The British Heritage" presents the seventeen writers who the compilers consider have best contributed to British traditions.

4. The material is significantly arranged. In addition to the material introducing each of the five great areas, other distinctive fea-

tures may be mentioned, such as a map of the world at the beginning of each area, with the specific area colored in black; the fitness of the illustrative material; the suggestions for further reading; and the desired direction of the pupil's thinking as indicated by questions under the headings "Informal Class Discussion," "Universal Truths," and "The Spirit of the Times."

One can hardly help being impressed with the dominating purpose carried throughout the presentation of this material—that of interesting the high-school student. The nature of the material, its attractive arrangement, the questions intended to set one thinking—all contribute to this end.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

The Forty-eight State School Systems. Chicago 37: Council of State Governments, 1949. Pp. x+246. \$4.00.

Higher Education for American Society. Papers delivered at the National Education Conference, Madison, 1948. Edited by JOHN GUY FOWLKES. Madison 5, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1949. Pp. 428. \$4.00.

O'KEEFE, PATRIC RUTH, and FAHEY, HELEN. *Education through Physical Activities: Physical Education and Recreation for Elementary Grades.* St. Louis, Missouri: C. V. Mosby Co., 1949. Pp. 310. \$4.00.

POTTER, MURIEL CATHERINE. *Perception of Symbol Orientation and Early Reading Success.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 939. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,

Columbia University, 1949. Pp. viii+70. \$2.10.

RUSSELL, DAVID H. *Children Learn To Read.* Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1949. Pp. xii+404. \$3.25.

WALLIN, J. E. WALLACE. *Children with Mental and Physical Handicaps.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Pp. xxii+550. \$5.00.

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ARCHER, ALLENE; HARTLEY, MILES C.; and SCHULT, VERYL. *Plane Geometry Experiments.* New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. vi+78+20 plates. \$0.96.

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COAN, OTIS W., and LILLARD, RICHARD G. *America in Fiction: An Annotated List of*

Novels That Interpret Aspects of Life in the United States. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1949 (third edition). Pp. vi+196. \$2.25.

GEISEL, JOHN B. *Personal Problems: Psychology Applied to Everyday Living.* Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1949. Pp. x+430.

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HAUSLE, EUGENIE C.; BRAVERMAN, BENJAMIN; EISNER, HARRY; and PETERS, MAX. *Mathematics You Need.* New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. viii+376. \$1.96.

HELMS, EARL T. "I Want To Be." Rockford, Illinois: Bellevue Books, 1949. Pp. 302. \$5.00.

JONES, JOHN PAUL. *The Modern Reporter's Handbook.* New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xvi+430. \$4.75.

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MOORE, CLYDE B., and KLEE, LORETTA E. *Pupil's Guidebook for "Building Our World."* Scribner Social Studies Series. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1949. Pp. 128. \$0.64.

The Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps: Bulletin of Information for Students desiring to enter the program in the fall term of college 1950. Princeton, New Jersey: Navy Department, Naval Examining Section, Educational Testing Service, 1949. Pp. 42.

NICHOLAS, EDWARD. *The Hours and the Ages: A Sequence of Americans.* New York

19: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1949. Pp. 304. \$3.50.

One Hundred Plays for Children. An Anthology of Non-Royalty One-Act Plays. Edited by A. S. BURACK. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1949. Pp. x+886. \$4.75.

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PEASE, THEODORE CALVIN. *The Story of Illinois.* Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1949 (revised). Pp. xviii+284. \$5.00.

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CHERRINGTON, BEN M. *The Nations Meet at the Ancient Crossroads of the World.* Denver, Colorado: Social Science Foundation, University of Denver, 1949. Pp. 26.

Curriculum in Intergroup Relations: Case Studies in Instruction for Secondary Schools. (Reprinted from the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, February, 1949.) Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, Work in Progress Series. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. viii+168. \$1.25.

Equality of Opportunity in College Admissions: The New York State Education Practices Act. Albany 1, New York: University of the State of New York, 1949. Pp. 16.

FRANK, JOSETTE. *Comics, Radio, Movies—and Children.* Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 148. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1949. Pp. 32. \$0.20.

HULL, J. DAN. *Primer of Life Adjustment Education for Youth.* Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 1949. Pp. 30. \$0.45.

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- MEIER, ARNOLD R.; CLEARY, FLORENCE D.; and DAVIS, ALICE M. "Let's Look at the Student Council." Detroit 2, Michigan: Citizenship Education Study, 1949. Pp. 12. \$0.25.
- MURPHY, HELEN A., and DURRELL, DONALD D. Murphy-Durrell Diagnostic Reading Readiness Test for Group Use. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co. Pp. 8.
- Occupational Abstract: No. 118, *Osteopathy* by H. ALAN ROBINSON, pp. 6, \$0.50; No. 119, *Psychology* by GEORGE J. DUDYCHA, pp. 6, \$0.50. New York 3: Occupational Index, Inc., 1949.
- Open-mindedness Can Be Taught*. A Preliminary Report of the Thought and Action of a Group of Teachers and Administrators Who Were Invited To Study the Possibility of Teaching Open-mindedness. Philadelphia 3: Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1949. Pp. 24.
- PARKER, H. T. *The Mental Defective in School and After*. Carlton N. 3, Victoria, Australia: Published for the Australian Council for Educational Research by Melbourne University Press, 1949. Pp. 32.
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- School Buildings, Grounds, and Equipment for Elementary Schools in Small School Systems*. Report of a Committee, E. NEST E. STONECIPHER, Chairman. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLIV, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1948. Pp. 68.
- The Social Framework of Education*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XIX, No. 1. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1949. Pp. 90. \$1.50.
- "Suggestions for Teachers and Counselors." Research Bulletin No. 28 of the Texas Commission on Coordination in Education. Austin 12, Texas: Administrative Board of the Texas Commission on Coordination in Education, 1948. Pp. 24 (processed).
- "Tabulation of Special Survey on High School Student Health and Nutrition Habits by the Institute of Student Opinion." Prepared for Scholastic Magazines by RAYMOND FRANZEN. New York 3: Scholastic Magazines, 1949. Pp. 34.
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- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
Education Briefs, No. 16, 1948—"Playground Equipment That Helps Children Grow" by SIMON A. MCNEELY. Pp. 16 (processed).

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